

*TEXT IS FLY &
CROSS WITHIN THE
BOOK*

UNIVERSAL
LIBRARY

OU_158300

UNIVERSAL
LIBRARY

With the best compliments of the author A. Hydri. Esq. B.A.
Secretary to H.H. The Nizam's Government, Judicial, Police,
and Miscellaneous departments.

18th November 1911 } A. Venkataramaniah
Aurangabad (Autt.) } Chief Assistant
Government High School
Aurangabad.

A HAND BOOK
OF
INDIAN HISTORY
FOR THE USE OF
HIGH SCHOOL PUPILS.

BY
A. VENKATARAMANIAH, B.A.,
*Formerly History Assistant, Church of Scotland Mission
College, Madras.*

MADRAS:
M. E. PRESS, MOUNT ROAD.

1903.

All rights reserved.

Price One Rupee.

Apply to

A. VENKATARAMANIAH, B.A.,

13, KACHALESWAR AGRAHARAM,

Muthcalpet, Madras.

TO

THE REV. F. W. KELLETT, M.A.,
*Professor of History, Madras Christian College, and Fellow of the
University of Madras,*

THIS BOOK

IS DEDICATED

(WITH KIND PERMISSION)

AS A TOKEN OF HIGH ESTEEM AND REGARD

BY HIS LOVING PUPIL

THE AUTHOR.

PREFACE

BY

MR. J. E. VEDANAYAGAM PILLAI, B.A.,

Professor of History, C. S. M. College, Madras.

I have much pleasure in recommending my friend Mr. A. Venkataramaniah's "Hand-book of Indian History" to teachers and pupils of High Schools throughout India as a neat and handy volume coming quite up to the present-day requirements of the Entrance Examinations of the various Indian Universities. I am aware that there are some very excellent text-books of Indian History now in pretty general use in the High School Classes of Indian educational institutions, and it is far from my intention either to detract from their acknowledged excellence or to insinuate aught against their continued popularity. I but desire for my friend's book the honor of a place beside one or another of those volumes and the compliment of as frequent a perusal of its pages as of the pages of its neighbour on the shelf. In bespeaking this amount of indulgence for the book, I can conscientiously say that I am actuated, not so much by the natural desire that I have to oblige my friend, as by the genuine conviction that the book is deserving of such indulgence. On a careful perusal of the well-nigh two hundred pages of which the book consists, I note with satisfaction that from the beginning to the end, it is the work of an amateur who works for the love of the art and not with the object of money-making. In writing the history the author seems to have had a definite purpose in view—namely, to merge the historian as much as possible in the tutor, to expound principles, not merely

enunciate them, to impress facts, not merely state them. This tutorial character of the book it is that in my estimation constitutes its specific value and renders it worthy of the indulgence I erewhile bespoke for it. The Maps and illustrations, the genealogical trees, and the chronological lists, with which the book abounds, are all, as I take them, means to secure the end above adverted to. The information is brought up to date, and on disputed points, the pronouncements of the latest critics are given. For accuracy, arrangement, and clearness of exposition, the book can hold its own against any other book of the same class in this country. As for the printing and the general get-up of the book, the Methodist Episcopal Press has done its work in a way that leaves nothing to be desired. The low price set on the book must put it within the reach of the very poorest pupils.

AUTHOR'S PREFACE.

It is hoped that this little book may be found useful as a valuable guide to the proper study of the History of India. An attempt has been made in it to render the subject as interesting as possible especially to those who are preparing for the Entrance Examinations of the Indian Universities. It is believed that the treatment given to the subject will clearly show the relations existing between political history and constitutional. Considerable use has been made of the material gained from a study of the subject under Mr. Kellett. The dates of Asoka and of the early English settlements as given in this book, the fact that there was only one Buddhist Council held, are all in accordance with the pronouncements of the latest critics. In connection with the Buddhist Councils, it is said in this book that "the first three Councils were never held at all." By that I mean to say that the other three Councils referred to by other historians, are now believed to have never been held.

I can but offer a general acknowledgment of my indebtedness to many eminent writers, living or dead, such as Professors Seeley, Fraser and Lyall. I cannot adequately express my indebtedness to the Rev. F. W. Kellett for the kindness he has been showing me on several occasions. Every one of his loving students does not fail to appreciate his scholarship and admire his kindness to those that are brought under his ennobling influence. It is this sense of gratitude and admiration that prompted me to dedicate this book to him. I have to thank him not only for his kind acceptance of the dedication, but also for the very valuable personal assistance he gave me

in the preparation of this work. In conclusion, I have to offer my sincere thanks to Dr. Rudisill, Agent of the Methodist Episcopal Press for his kindness in allowing a full page to each map without any high charge for the same.

I alone am responsible for any errors that this book may contain. I crave the indulgence of the public and wish very much to cordially welcome any suggestions or corrections to improve this work in succeeding editions.

A. V.

CONTENTS.



THE EARLY HINDU PERIOD.

<i>Chapter</i>	PAGE
I. The Vedic Period	1
II. The Epic Period	4
III. The Middle Ages	9
IV. The Greek Invasion	13
V. The Scythian Invasion	15
VI. The Revival of Brahmanism	15
VII. The Dravidian Kingdoms of the Dekhan	18

THE EARLY MUHAMMADAN PERIOD.

I. Muhammadanism	20
II. The House of Ghazni	21
III. The House of Ghor	23
IV. The Slave Kings	25
V. The House of Khilji	27
VI. The Toghlak Dynasty	28
VII. The Sayyid Dynasty	30
VIII. The Lodi Dynasty	30
IX. The Vijayanagar Kingdom	31
X. The Bahmini Kingdom	32

THE MOGUL PERIOD.

I. Babar	36
II. Humayun	37
III. The Sur Dynasty	37
IV. Akbar the Great	38
V. Jehangir	42

Chapter	PAGE
VI. Shah Jahan	44
VII. Aurangazeb	46
VIII. The Rise of the Mahrattas	49
IX. Bahadur Shah, etc.	56
X. General Review of the Musalman Rule	58

THE BRITISH PERIOD.

European Competition for Indian Trade.

I. Italy and Portugal	60
II. Holland and France	64
III. England	67
IV. The Anglo-French Struggle	70
V. The English in Bengal	80
VI. Hyder Ali and the Mahrattas	90
VII. Warren Hastings	92
VIII. Lord Cornwallis	107
IX. Sir John Shore	113
X. Marquis Wellesley	114
XI. Lord Cornwallis and Sir George Barlow	126
XII. Lord Minto	127
XIII. Lord Moira	131
XIV. Lord Amherst	137
XV. Lord William Bentinck	141
XVI. Sir Charles Metcalfe and Lord Auckland	144
XVII. Lord Ellenborough	151
XVIII. Sir Henry Hardinge	153
XIX. Lord Dalhousie	156
XX. Earl Canning	164
XXI. The four Viceroys after Canning	172
XXII. Lord Lytton	174
XXIII. Marquis of Ripon and Earl Dufferin	175
XXIV. Lord Lansdowne, Lord Elgin and Lord Curzon	176

MAPS AND ILLUSTRATIONS.

I.	The Bahmini Kingdoms with their founders and dates	34
II.	Akbar's Annexations	39
II. a	Fifteen Subahs of Akbar's Empire	40
III.	Early English Settlements in India	70
IV.	Plans of the 2nd and 3rd Mahratta Wars	126
V.	First Burmese War	140
VI.	First Afghan War	151
VII.	First Sikh War	153
VIII.	Second Sikh War, Second Burmese War	157
IX.	Dalhousie's Annexations	162
X.	The Mutiny of 1857	171

GENEALOGICAL TREES.

I.	The House of Babar	35
II.	The Peishwas	54
III.	The Mahratta Sovereigns	54
IV.	The Nizams of Hyderabad	71
V.	The Nawabs of the Karnatic	71
VI.	The Royal line in Afghanistan	140
VII.	The Ministerial Dynasty	140

INTRODUCTION.

The country. The peninsula in which we live, is divided into two parts by the Vindhya range. The region to the north of the range contains the lofty Himalayas and the river plains of the Indus and the Ganges. This region goes by the name of Hindustan. The territory that lies to the *south* of the Vindhya range is the triangular tableland of the Dekhan. (Dekhan comes from the Sanskrit word "Dakshina" meaning south.)

The people. India is inhabited by men of different races, speaking different languages, and professing different religions. It has never been inhabited by *one* nation, speaking *one* language, professing *one* religion.

Bonds which unite a nation. Race, religion, common language and common interests, are *some* of the chief bonds of union that are essential for the unification of a nation. In India, it is difficult for the people to be united as a *nation* except through *common interests*, as the members of the whole Indian Empire.

THE PRE-ARYAN PERIOD.

Aborigines. The first inhabitants of India were a short and black people who used polished flint implements.

Immigrants. The first immigrants that came to India were the *Dravidians* who probably entered by the North-Western passes. They had kings, generals and village accountants.

Difference in immigration. It is important to notice here that all the immigrants, till the advent of the Arabs, entered India *by land* through the North-west, while the Arabs, the Portuguese and their successors came to India *by sea*, on which side India was not well-protected.

CHAPTER II.

THE HOUSE OF GHAZNI (997—1186).

The following is a list of the early Muhammadan dynasties that tried to establish their power in India:—

- (1) The House of Ghazni (997—1186).
- (2) The House of Ghor (1186—1206).
- (3) The Slave Kings (1206—1290).
- (4) The House of Khilji (1290—1320).
- (5) The House of Tughlak (1320—1412).
- (6) The Sayyids (1414—1450).
- (7) The Lodis (1450—1526).

Later (8) The House of Babar (1526—1857).

It is noteworthy that the whole of India was never entirely Muhammadan. Even when the Mogul Empire was at its zenith (1565—1707), there were many Hindu States in India maintaining the Hindu power. By the middle of the seventeenth century (1650 A.D.), there had begun a revival of Hindu power which would have carried all before it, but for the rise of the Europeans.

The Khalif of Bagdad appointed a Turki Slave, Alptigin, governor of Khorasan. On the death of his master, he was deprived of his government, and fled to Ghazni where he founded a new kingdom in 961 A. D. After his death, his slave, Sabaktigin, succeeded him in Ghazni, in 977.

The Hindus were alarmed at the establishment of a new and powerful kingdom so close to their own provinces, and resolved upon invading the new kingdom. Jeipal, the Rajput King of Lahore, invaded the possessions of Sabaktigin, but he retreated after surrendering fifty elephants and promising a large ransom. On returning to his kingdom, Jeipal denied the promise. Thereupon, Sabaktigin marched towards the Indus, defeated

Jeipal and appointed a Governor over the conquered territory. Sabaktigin died in 997.

Sabaktigin was succeeded by his son, the Mahmud of Ghazni, (997—1030), famous Mahmud. He declared himself independent of the Khalifs, and assumed the title of Sultan. He, then, turned towards India which presented an unlimited field for conquest, glory and plunder. He aimed at the establishment of Islam in new countries and at the amassing of immense wealth.

His 12 invasions. Mahmud of Ghazni invaded India not less than twelve times.

1001. He defeated the Rajputs at Peshawar. Jeipal having been twice defeated, abdicated the throne in favor of his son, Anangapal, and burnt himself alive.
1004. He defeated the Raja of Bhatia.
1005. He defeated the chief of Multan.
1008. Mahmud defeated the Rajputs of the Punjab and annexed their territory. He plundered the temple of Nagarkot.
1010. Multan was taken.
1011. Thaneswar was captured.
1013. } He attacked Kashmere and Transoxiana.
1015. }
1017. He defeated the Raja of Kanouj and attacked Muttra.
1022. Jeipal II. was defeated, and Lahore was annexed to Ghazni. This was the first permanent occupation of the country to the east of the Indus, by Mahmud.
1029. He marched against Kalinger.
1024. He plundered Somnath. He received the name of "Iconoclast," or Breaker of Idols, by breaking down an idol in the temple of Somnath.
1030. He died after a rule of 33 years.

Most of the invasions of Mahmud were mere plundering raids. Before his death, he shed tears at the thought of parting with the costly gems and treasures he brought to Ghazni by plundering Somnath and other places.

Mahmud's character. He was, doubtless, the most consummate general and conqueror of his age. He showed much prudence in carrying out his ambitious plans. He was energetic and active. He was fond of learning. In all his campaigns, he seldom lost a battle or failed in an object of his ambition. Having inherited a small kingdom, he died master of the Panjab, Kabul, Transoxiana and Persia.

In all his Indian expeditions, we see an extraordinary avarice. Those expeditions did not spread the Moslem faith. His vast dominions, conquered by the force of arms, were not consolidated, and consequently crumbled to pieces after his death.

CHAPTER III.

THE HOUSE OF GHOR (1186—1206).

During the reign of Mahmud of Ghazni began a rivalry between the House of Ghazni and the House of Ghor. In 1152 A.D., this rivalry, after many changes, ended in the triumph of the House of Ghor. This dynasty had its home, further west, in Afghanistan. In 1186, the last of the Ghaznvide kings was driven out of the Panjab by Muhamad Ghor.

Muhamad Ghor. Shahabuddin or Muhamad Ghor was an Afghan, while Mahmud of Ghazni was a Turk.

Battle of
Thaneswar I. In 1191, Muhamad Ghor attacked the Raja of Delhi, against whom he was invited to fight by the Raja of Kanouj. In the

battle called the first battle of Thaneswar. Muhamad Ghori was defeated by Prithvi, Raja of Delhi and Ajmere.

Battle of
Thaneswar II.

In 1193 in the second battle of Thaneswar, Muhamad Ghori was victorious and took Delhi.

We already noticed that Muhamad Ghori was invited by the Raja of Kanouj against the Raja of Delhi and Ajmere. Now, after capturing Delhi, Muhamad Ghori defeated the Raja of

Battle of Chadrawar,
1194.

Kanouj, the very man who invited him, and annexed his dominions. Many Rajput chiefs left Hindustan, and formed new

settlements in Rajputana.

Inference from the
battle of Chadrawar.

It is important to notice that this is one of the instances where internal dissensions in India led to the invitation of a stranger

by one of the combatants, with the result that the stranger eventually became the conqueror of both the combatants.

Muhamad Ghori was ruling at Ghazni, having appointed Kutbuddin, viceroy over the Panjab and Hindustan.

1203

Bhaktiyar Khilji conquered Bengal, and became the first viceroy of Bengal and Behar.

1206.

Muhamad Ghori was killed by a band of Gakkars. After the death of Muhamad Ghori, his generals became independent in the provinces which they occupied.

Muhamad Ghori's
character.

Muhamad Ghori was not a brilliant soldier like Mahmud of Ghazni, and did not possess the extraordinary military abilities of the latter; but he appears to have followed a more consistent policy of conquest, which, in spite of defeats and disasters, he successfully carried out; he may perhaps be

considered to be the Moslem *conqueror* of India, while his predecessors were only *invaders*.

Thus, we see that, within a period of only fifteen years (1191—1206), the Moslems conquered Northern India. We must now examine the causes of the facility with which the Moslems conquered Northern India.

The Moslems as a race, were superior to the Rajputs, in military discipline, in soldier-like qualities and in national energy and vigour. But in manly courage, and in a firm resolution to die for their homes and their religion, the Rajputs were not inferior to the Moslems; and it was their want of intercourse with other nations that rendered the Rajputs inferior in practical ability and in military efficiency.

Another cause was that there was no other nation in Northern India than the Rajputs who possessed either political life or national vigour. The Rajputs were the only living race in India, when the Moslems came. When this single race was conquered, the other powerless races of Northern India easily submitted to the Moslems.

These causes also explain the uninterrupted rule of the Moslems for six centuries that followed.

CHAPTER IV.

THE SLAVE KINGS (1206—1290).

We already noticed that Kutbuddin was

(1) Kutbuddin, the Viceroy appointed by Muhamad Ghori.
(1206—1210).

On the death of the latter, the former became the Sultan of Delhi, being the *first* Muhammadan ruler to fix his residence *in* India. He was the founder of the dynasty of the Slave Kings. Most of the Slave Kings were Turks like Mahmud of Ghazni.

(2) Altamsh,
(1210—1236). Altamsh was the greatest of the Slave Kings. His independence was recognized by the Khalif.

1225. It was during this reign that the Moguls under the terrible Chengiz Khan spread over Asia, and penetrated into Europe. Fortunately, the terrible invaders did not penetrate beyond the Indus.

Altamsh conquered Sindh, Bengal and Malwa.

1236. The beautiful column of Kutb Minar, 242 feet high, was completed during this reign. Altamsh died, and was succeeded by his daughter Rezia.

(3) Rezia
(1236—1239). Under her able administration, everything went on well for a time, but her great favor to an Abyssinian slave caused her fall.

(4) Naziruddin,
(1246—1266). Rezia was killed, and was succeeded by Naziruddin, the youngest son of Altamsh. He possessed studious habits, and became the patron of learning and a friend of the poor. He practised good economy. His confidential minister was Ghiasuddin Balban, the son-in-law of Altamsh. Naziruddin died after a reign of twenty years, and was succeeded by Ghiasuddin Balban.

(5) Ghiasuddin
Balban
(1266—1287). Ghiasuddin Balban was *notorious* for his cruelty to Hindu rebels and for the massacre of his Viceroys. On the other hand, he was *famous* for maintaining fifteen kings who had been driven from their realms, in Central Asia, by the Tartars. Many learned men also flocked to his court for the same reason.

CHAPTER V.

THE HOUSE OF KHILJI (1290—1320).

(1) Jalaluddin, (1290—1295). Jalaluddin was the founder of the Khilji dynasty. In his reign, his nephew Alauddin carried out various plundering expeditions against Hindu Kingdoms, such as Bhilsa and Deoghar.

1294. A century after the conquest of Northern India by the Moslems, Dekhan was for the *first* time invaded by them, in 1294 A.D.

1295. Jalaluddin was assassinated and succeeded by his nephew, Alauddin.

(2) Alauddin. (1295—1316). Alauddin conquered Guzerat in 1297, and took Kamala-devi, the wife of the Hindu king, to his harem, and made her his wife. He next captured Chitor in 1303. Eight years later, he massacred several thousands of Mogul settlers in Delhi.

Having secured peace in the North, he next determined to conquer the South ; and with this view, he sent his eunuch general, Malik-kafur, to the Dekhan.

1306. In 1306, Malik-kafur reduced and sent as prisoner to Delhi, the raja of Deoghar who had refused his tribute. Dewal devi, the daughter of the raja of Guzerat, was carried to Delhi where she married Alauddin's son.

1310. Deoghur was totally subdued when it revolted again. The same year, Malik-kafur reduced the Ganapathies of Warrangal.

1310. The Kingdom of the Ballalas was conquered, and to commemorate the event, a mosque was built on the Malabar coast.

1316. Alauddin died.

Alauddin's
character.

Alauddin was illiterate, cruel and tyrannical. His conquests were no doubt brilliant and his rule was firm, and in all his provinces there was peace and security.

Malik-kafur was soon after killed.

CHAPTER VI.

THE TOGHLAK DYNASTY (1320—1412).

(1) Ghiasuddin
Toghlak.
(1320—1325).

The death of Alauddin was followed by anarchy and confusion, at Delhi. A Hindu convert, Khusrau Khan, claimed himself Sultan; but order was at last restored by Ghiasuddin Toghlak Shah, a Turki slave originally. His father was a Turki slave and his mother, a Jat. With a view to avoid disturbances he transferred the capital from Delhi to Toghlakabad, the Hindus being too strong at Delhi.

Ghiasuddin was suspected to have been treacherously murdered by his son Ulugh Khan who was afterwards known as Muhammad Toghlak.

(2) Muhammad
Toghlak (1325—
1351).

Muhammad Toghlak was a Muhammadan Bigot; therefore, he totally refused to employ Hindus under him. He had sound memory and could talk eloquently. He knew Persian and Arabic. He studied Astronomy and Mathematics, Logic and Greek Philosophy. He was a poet and he knew History. With all these qualifications, he delighted in mad projects. He totally disregarded the miseries and sufferings which his foolish and disastrous projects caused to the people.

His Acts.

He massacred the Hindu population of Kanouj. He bought off a Mogul invasion of the Panjab. He crushed a Hindu rising in the Dekhan.

1338. To escape famine, he tried to shift the capital from Delhi to Deoghur; but the foolishness lay in the fact that he was not prevented by the failure of twice repeating it.

New coinage. In imitation of the Chinese, he instituted a coinage of copper counters, which almost ruined the trade of India. For example, merchants would not be willing to exchange their goods for copper coins, instead of gold and silver ones; but, they would take goods by paying copper coins which were ordered to be considered as being equal in value to gold.

Chinese expedition. Another act of madness was his Chinese expedition which failed miserably. He taxed the people heavily and they fled away to other places; but they were hunted and massacred.

His cruelty. The cruelty of Muhammad Toghlaq is very well described by a famous historian in the following words :—" With fiendish cruelty, akin to the animal lust of a man-eating tiger, his fierce nature could only be appeased by deeds of inhuman wickedness. Enclosing large tracts of country, he drove the inoffensive inhabitants towards the centre, so that he and his favourite comrades might revel in man-hunts, slaughtering human beings as though they were wild beasts. His nephew who rebelled against him was flayed alive, and no one in the kingdom dared afterwards to dispute his dictates."

During the last years of his reign, successful revolts broke out everywhere.

In 1340, Bengal revolted, and four years later the Muhammadans were driven out of Warrangal by the Hindus.

Muhammad Toghlaq died, 1351. In 1350, the Bahmini Kingdom was formed. The next year, Muhammad Toghlaq died amid the dismemberments of his empire.

(3) Firuz-Shah
(1351—1388).

Firuz Shah tried to promote the welfare of his subjects by public works, such as the Jumna-Sutlej Canal.

1398.

The Mogul leader, Timur Lenc (Tamerlane), invaded India, defeated Muhammad under the walls of Delhi, entered the city and allowed in it a massacre for five days. He allowed another massacre at Meerut. Thence he advanced to Hardiwar and retired along the foot of the Himalayas. He merely plundered wherever he went, and massacred the people.

(4) Muhammad, the
last of the Toghlok
dynasty.

Muhammad reigned at Delhi till 1412. He was the last of the Toghlok dynasty.

CHAPTER VII.

THE SAYYID DYNASTY (1414—1450).

The Sayyids claimed to be the lieutenants of the successors of Timur who ruled over a large empire in Central Asia. They were very weak, so that throughout the greater part of India the Muhammadan and Hindu dynasties were independent.

The extent of the Kingdom of Delhi, in the earlier part of the reign of Muhammad Toghlak, was very large when compared with that in the time of the Sayyids. It extended, in the time of the Toghlok dynasty, to the Himalayas in the north, and from the Indus to the Bay of Bengal, and all the Coromandel coast, except Orissa. In the time of the Sayyids, it was confined to the town of Delhi with its suburbs.

CHAPTER VIII.

THE LODI DYNASTY (1450—1526).

The Lodis were Afghans and were stronger than the

Sayyids. One of the Lodi Kings, Sikandar by name, changed the capital from Delhi to Secunderabad near Agra.

Behlol Lodi forced the "King of the East", as the ruler of Jaunpur was called, to flee into Bengal, and annexed his Kingdom.

In his time, the Kingdom of Delhi was extended from the Panjab to Bengal.

The last of the Lodi dynasty was Ibrahim Lodi. His enemy was Daulat Lodi, the Governor of the Panjab. To fight with Ibrahim, Daulat Lodi invited Babar to invade the territory of Ibrahim. Accordingly Babar defeated Ibrahim Lodi in the first battle of Panipat ; and soon became the founder of the Mogul Empire in India.

N.B.—*This is another instance of internal dissensions in India, causing one of the combatants to invite a stranger for help, who eventually becomes the ruler. In this case, Babar established his own dynasty, and the Afghan rule was brought to an end.*

CHAPTER IX.

VIJAYANAGAR AND BAHMINI KINGDOMS.

Vijayanagar
founded,
1340.

(1) Sangama
dynasty.

The first mention that we have of this Kingdom is in 1340 when its chief was Hari-Hara. Its capital was on the south bank of the Tungabadra river. The Sangama dynasty takes its name after Sangama, Hari-Hara's father. It grew in strength apparently owing to the union of the Hindus of the South against the Muhammadans. The greatest king of this dynasty was Deva Raya II. who compelled the

Bahmini kingdom to remove its capital to Bedar, further north. His reign was a prosperous one.

(2) Narasimha dynasty, (1483). The Sangama dynasty was followed by a new dynasty called the Narasimha dynasty (1483—1542). The greatest king of this dynasty was Krishna Raya (Krishna Deva Rayalu) who extended the Kingdom to the widest limits it ever reached. He captured Conjeeveram, Seringapatam, and annexed Mysore. He conquered the Northern Circars, thus extending his rule as far north as Cuttack. He gave rich gifts to all the temples of South India. His capital was Rajamundry. He was the greatest patron of Telugu Literature. The last of this dynasty was Sadasiva Raya, an infant when he came to the throne. He began his reign in 1542; but practically this year marks a change of dynasty, as his minister Rama Raya was the virtual ruler. Rama Raya skilfully played off one Muhammadan King against another. At last, the Muhammadan States of the Dekhan resented his power and arrogance, and combined against him in 1565, defeated and slew him at Talikota.

(3) Karnata dynasty. Battle of Talikota, 1505.

It was a descendant of this Rama Raya who granted Madras to the English, in 1639. His name was Ranga Raya.

The ensign of the Maharajas of Vijayanagar was a *Peacock*.

CHAPTER X.

THE BAHMINI KINGDOM.

1347 is the date of the foundation of the Bahmini Kingdom. Its founder was Hassan, the Viceroy of Deoghur (Daulatabad), who declared himself independent of the Sultan of Bijapur. He took the name, Bahmini, in memory of his old patron the

Brahman Gango. He fixed his capital at Kulberga (Hassana bad = the town of Hassan).

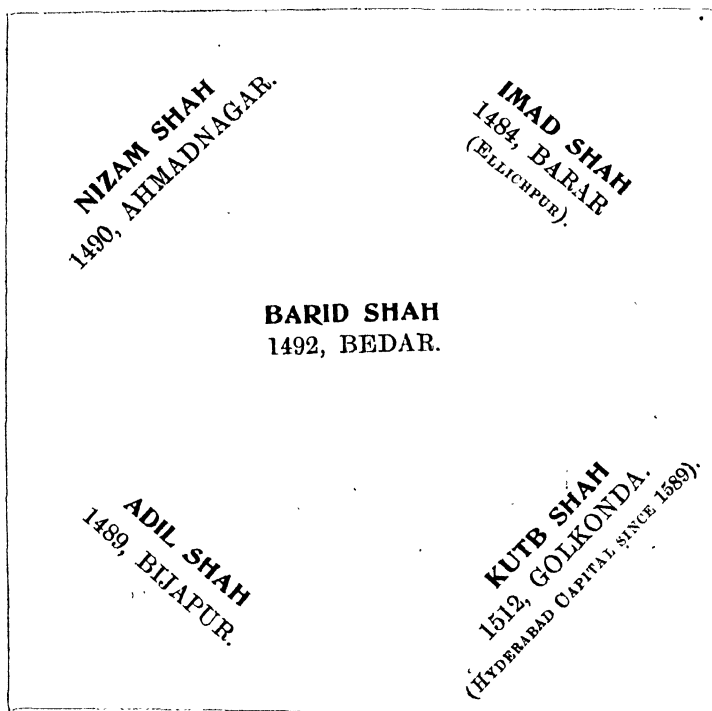
His son Muhamad waged successful wars with the Ganapathis of Warrangal and with Vijayanagar, and took Golkonda. The first war between the Bahmini Kingdom and the Kingdom of Vijayanagar took place in 1364.

The Kingdom was dismembered after the death of Muhamad II. in 1482. From the Bahmini Kingdom were formed *five* separate kingdoms under different dynasties.

THE FIVE STATES OF THE BAHMINI KINGDOM.

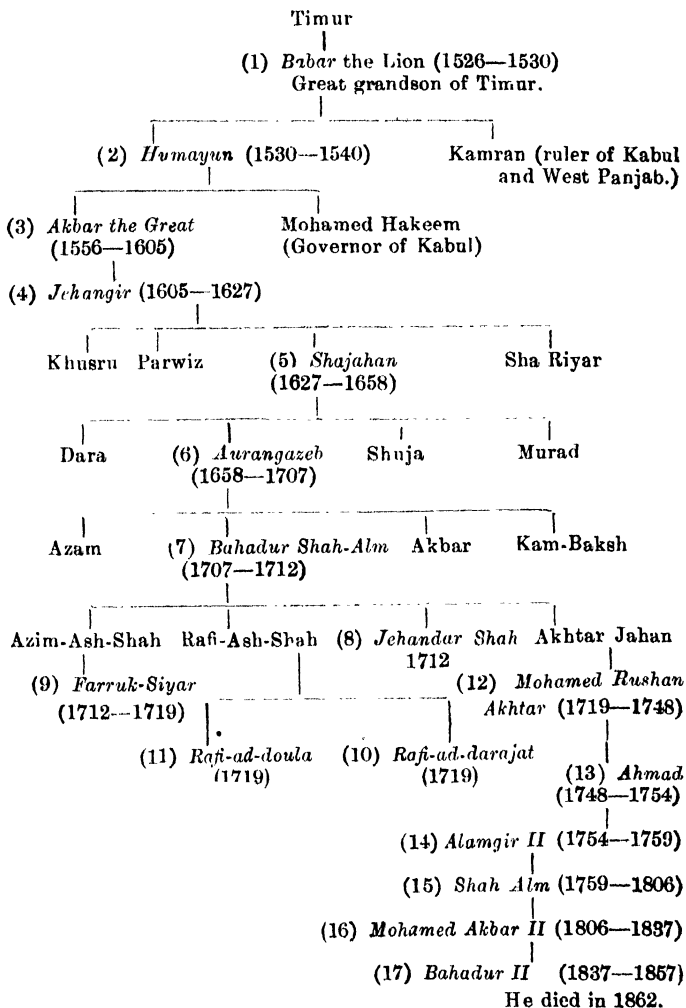
Kingdom.	Date.	Founder.	Locality.	Remarks.
Barar ...	1484	Imad Shah ...	North	Capital Ellichpur. After Hyderabad was founded in 1589, it became the capital of Kutb Shah.
Bijapur ...	1489	Adil Shah ...	South	
Ahmadnagar...	1490	Nizam Shah ...	North	
Bedar ...	1492	Barid Shah ...	Centre	
Golkonda ...	1512	Kutb Shah ...	South	

The following form shows the geographical position of the States in relation to one another :—



Between these separate States of the Bahmini Kingdom, there were constant quarrels of which Rama Raya, one of the Kings of Vijayanagar, took advantage ; but in 1565, the Muhammadans made a united stand against the Hindus at Talikota in 1565. This union was only temporary, for they fell into their old condition of constant quarrels after the battle.

*** HOUSE OF BABAR (1526—1857).**



* This Table is intended for reference.

THE MOGUL PERIOD.

CHAPTER I.

BABAR (1526—1530).

In a previous chapter, we already noticed that Babar won the battle of Panipat in 1526. He was the founder of the Mogul Empire in India. He was born in 1482. Having inherited the kingdom of Konkan, he took Kabul and founded a kingdom in Afghanistan.

Battle of Sikri,
1527.

In 1527, Babar defeated the Rajputs led by Sanga, the Rana of Chitor, and in the following year he stormed Chanderi.

In 1530, he conquered Jaunpur, Bengal and Behar. At the end of this reign, the Kingdom of Delhi included the whole of Hindustan, with the exception of Guzerat.

When in 1530 Humayun was ill, his father Babar prayed to have the sickness transferred to him. Accordingly the father died and the son's health was restored.

Babar was genial in his disposition, and Character of Babar. possessed a very sociable temper. His affection to his close acquaintances was really admirable. His bravery in the field is praiseworthy. He was almost rash in many of his daring exploits. To his enemies, he was as cruel as Timur. From his "Memoirs," we learn that he was skilled in horsemanship and that he was fond of wine.

CHAPTER II.

HUMAYUN (1530—1540).

1530. Bahadur Shah was the King of Guzerat at this time. Humayun marched against him and captured the
1531. fortress of *Champanir*. The next year Bahadur Shah was killed in a fight at Diu with the Portuguese.

The Muhammadans were at this time separated into two classes, the Moguls and the Afghans. They were not therefore a nation of unity. *This difference between the two divisions weakened the Mogul Empire.*

1539. Sher Shah, an Afghan of the *Sur* dynasty, marched against Humayun and defeated him at *Buxar*
1540. (first battle of Buxar). The next year Sher Shah drove Humayun out of India, after defeating him
1542. at Kanouj. Humayun then fled to Amarkot, where two years later, his son Akbar was born. Humayun next went to Persia, where his general Bairam
1544. Khan joined him. Akbar was sent to Kandahar.

Sher Shah was the undisputed master in the absence of Humayun. The *Sur* dynasty ruled for a period of 15 years.

CHAPTER III.

THE SUR DYNASTY (1540—1555).

Sher Shah
(1540—1545).

After the temporary expulsion of Humayun, Afghan power was restored in 1540.

Sher Shah maintained peace, unity and good Government. He constructed a grand trunk road from the Indus to Bengal.

When Sher Shah besieged the fort of Raisin in Malwa, the garrison surrendered, but Sher Shah mercilessly killed all of them. This is a stain on his character.

In 1545, Sher Shah was killed by the explosion of a magazine, while besieging Kalinger in Bundelkhand.

Salim Shah was the son of Sher Shah. He was weaker, and was followed by his son who was murdered in a rebellion.

Humayun conquered his brother Kamran at Kabul in 1553. He took Delhi and Agra in 1555. He also defeated Sikandar, the last of the Sur dynasty, at Sarhind, and recovered the throne.

Thus the temporary rule of the Afghans was brought to an end.

Humayun died from the effects of a fall from the terrace of his palace. He was succeeded by his young son Akbar, who was still a minor. His general Bairam Khan acted as regent.

CHAPTER IV.

AKBAR THE GREAT (1556—1605).

The Mogul Empire was founded by the war-like skill of Babar. It had been consolidated and raised to its full height of splendour and power by Akbar, a contemporary of Queen Elizabeth.

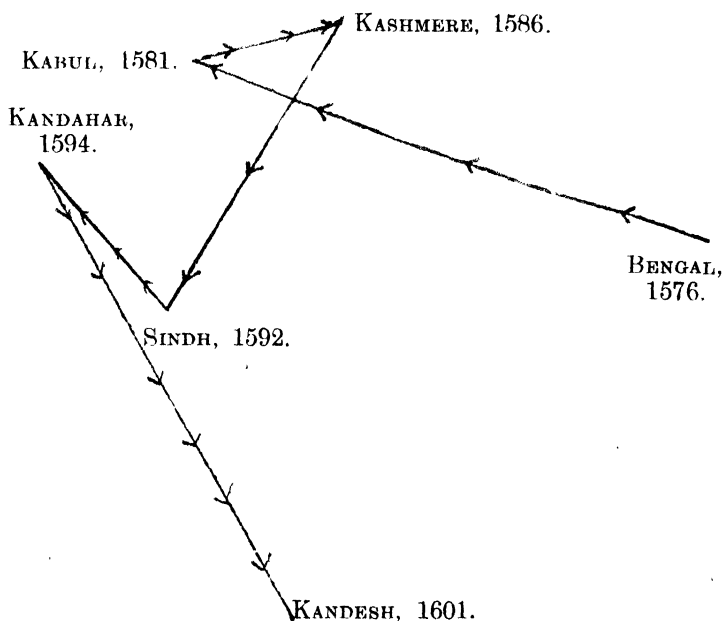
When Akbar came to the throne, he was only 13 years of age. His regent, Bairam Khan, managed the affairs of the Empire for some time. In 1556, Hemu, the ruler of Bengal, revolted against the Mogul authority, but the Hindu was defeated and slain at Panipat in 1556. Four years later, Bairam Khan died (1560).

Between 1561 and 1568, Akbar subdued the Rajput kingdoms of Jaipur, Jodhpur and Chitor, and his suzerainty over all the Rajputs was acknowledged.

1562. Akbar married the Rajput princess of Jaipur. Having thus encouraged friendship and intermarriages with the Hindus, he thought it unwise to retain Jaziya, a tax on infidels. He therefore abolished the tax.

1572. He subdued Guzerat, but there was a rebellion twenty years later, and that was also put down.

There were certain annexations during the reign of Akbar and these may be better represented as follows:—



(The above is arranged chronologically and it is believed that it will assist the mind's eye. The reader is to follow the red

line from Bengal in the direction of the arrow, and he will see that the line runs through all those places annexed by Akbar, in the order of the time of annexation. The places are also marked in their proper situations).

In 1599 Akbar took Ahmadnagar, but could not establish the Mogul rule there.

1575. Abul-Fazl, the great minister of Akbar,
was introduced to the Emperor in 1575.

1577. Two years later, Akbar removed from his coins the symbol of Islam, and substituted the words "Allahu Akbar" meaning *God is great*.

(Every Muhammadan remembers the words "ALLAHU AKBAR" occurring at the beginning of his daily prayer, and understands the words to mean God is great.)

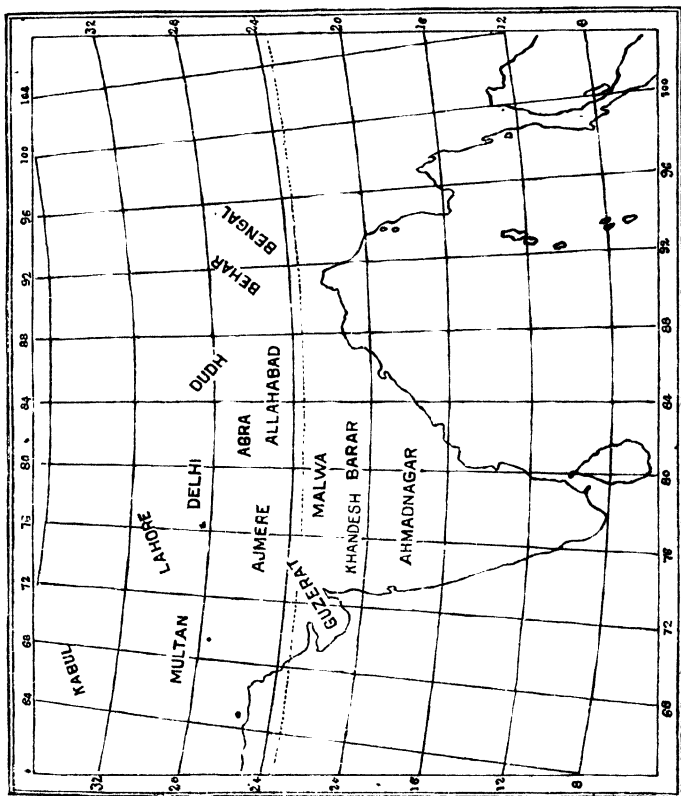
1602. Abul-Fazl wrote a statistical account of the country, and the book was called "Ain-i-Akbari" which was completed in 1596. Abul-Fazl was murdered at the instigation of Salim, the son of Akbar.

From the year 1583, Akbar began to count dates by a new era counting from the first year of his reign instead of from the Hijira.

Last years of Akbar. Akbar's ungrateful son Salim or Jehangir rebelled during the last days of Akbar. He was addicted to drinking. Akbar died of a broken heart in 1605.

Akbar's character. Akbar was the greatest Muhammadan ruler that ever ruled in India. His bravery in war was admirable. He has justly been called the real founder of the great Mogul Empire in India. His administrative talents were of a high order. With the help of the Muhammadan and Hindu ministers, he organized a perfect

Map showing the 15 Subahs of Akbar's Empire.



system of administration. He settled the land revenue of his great Empire after a careful survey. He was enlightened, tolerant and catholic in his views. He conciliated the Rajput chiefs by his kindness. He abolished the tax of Jaziya on the Hindus. He appreciated what was good and noble in all *races* and in all *religions*.

Akbar's religion. Akbar was anxious to learn the doctrines of all religions. His court welcomed men of all religions. He heard their controversies. He was not an orthodox Muhammadan. Under the influence of his minister Abul-Fazl, he dismissed the Ulama, an assembly of the Muhammadan divines. He founded a new religion known as the "Divine Faith." Finally he returned to Muhammadanism.

Akbar compared to Henry VIII. Here we may notice the striking resemblance between Akbar and Henry VIII of England. It lay in the amalgamation of the religious and political authority in one sovereign.

Akbar's Reforms. As we already noticed, he abolished the Jaziya. He strictly prohibited slavery, child-marriage and sati. He abolished Jaghirs, and introduced the system of cash payment to soldiers. He made a careful revenue survey of his empire by the invaluable help of Raja Todar Mall, a Hindu financier who laid down that one-third of the gross produce of land should be paid as imperial revenue.

Division of Empire. He divided his Empire into 15 subahs or provinces. They were Delhi, Agra, Kabul, Lahore, Multan, Ajmere, Guzerat, Malwa, Oudh, Allahabad, Behar, Bengal, Khandesh, Barar and Ahmadnagar. A Subahdar or Viceroy was appointed over each province, and under him were the *Dewans* or revenue authorities, and the *Faujdar*s or military commanders. *Khazis* administered justice, and *Kotwals* superintended the police in all towns.

Akbar's wise policy. By conciliating the Hindus, not only was Akbar able to prevent new Muham-madan invasions from Central Asia, but he was also able to keep in subjection his own moslem subahdars.

CHAPTER V.

JEHANGIR (1605—1627).

Parentage. We already noticed that Abul-Fazl was murdered by the Raja of Bundelkhand, at

the instigation of Salim, the son of Akbar. Salim was born to a Hindu mother Jodh Bai, the daughter of Maldeo, the Raja of Jodhpur. He is some time better known as Jehangir (The

Marriage 1611. Conqueror of the World). In 1611, he married Nur Jahan (The Light of the World).

She was the daughter of a Persian, named Mirza Ghyas. She was in the habit of often coming to Akbar's harem with her mother. Jehangir was attracted by her beauty, and desired to marry her, but Akbar refused his consent; and the girl was afterwards given in marriage to one Sher Afghan, whom Akbar sent away to Bengal with a Jaghir; but when Jehangir became Emperor, Sher Afghan was killed and the widow's hand was secured. Her weak husband was thenceforward a tool in her hands.

1606. Jehangir's son Khusrau rebelled, but was imprisoned.

1610. Malik Ambar, an Abyssinian slave, established an independent kingdom of Ahmad-nagar with its capital Aurangabad.

Sir T. Roe, 1615. In 1615, Sir Thomas Roe, the ambassador sent by James I., the King of England, visited the Mogul Court. Sir Thomas Roe writes of the intemperance of Jehangir, "I think four or five casks will be more welcome than the richest gems in Cheapside (London)."

1617. Shah Jahan, the son of Jehangir, re-conquered Ahmadnagar.

1621. Four years later, the Persians captured Kandahar. With the exception of the loss of Kandahar, the empire was undiminished throughout this reign, which is marked by the struggle over Ahmadnagar and by the appearance of the English in the Mogul Court.

1625. In 1623, Shah Jahan rebelled and took Bengal and Behar; but two years later, Mahabat Khan, one of Jehangir's generals, drove Shah Jahan into the Dekhan where he united with Malik Ambar.

1627. In 1626, Mahabat Khan imprisoned Jehangir, because Nur Jahan had, on a certain occasion, ill-treated him. The next year Jehangir was released, and Mahabat Khan was sent against Shah Jahan, but the last two combined. In 1627 Jehangir died.

Character. Jehangir was fond of drinking. He is sometimes represented with a bottle in his hands. He was anxious to do justice when he was not drunk. The murder of Abul-Fazl is the worst stain on his character. His Government was becoming corrupt, and plunder was common. After Jehangir's accession, the Hijira Era which was discontinued by Akbar, as we already noticed, was now restored. Jehangir was tolerant like Akbar, and the political system of Akbar was also allowed to continue. During the reign of Jehangir there were three great officials, Asof Khan (the brother of Nur Jahan), Mahabat Khan, and Shah Jahan. Asof Khan was raised to the position of the Commander-in-Chief.

CHAPTER VI.

SHAH JAHAN (1627—1658).

His first act after his accession, was to put to death all possible rivals to the throne. He was proclaimed Emperor in 1628.

Shaji Bhonsle tried to maintain the independence of Ahmadnagar, but Shah Jahan annexed it, and Shaji himself entered into the service of the King of Bijapur.

1636. The great Mosque at Delhi was built.

1657. The kings of Bijapur and Golkonda were paying tribute to the Mogul Emperor, but in 1657, under the influence of Mir Jumla, one of the generals in the service of the Emperor, Aurangazeb invaded the kingdoms, and conquered the fortress of Bedar.

In 1658, there was a rumour that Shah Jahan died, and this led to a struggle between his sons for the Empire. The struggle ended in the triumph of Aurangazeb and imprisonment of Shah Jahan. In 1666, Shah Jahan died in prison.

Shah Jahan's character. While Akbar was pre-eminent as a conqueror and law-giver, Shah Jahan excelled him as an administrator. He built splendid buildings. He built the famous Taj Mahal at Agra, over the tomb of his queen Mumtaz Mahal, the daughter of Azof Khan. Shah Jahan founded the new city of Delhi, constructed its fortified palace, and its splendid Jumma Musjid. He constructed the celebrated peacock throne, said to have cost over six millions sterling. Shah Jahan was the first Mogul Emperor that sat on this valuable throne. The last Emperor who sat on it, was Muhammad Shah, in whose reign, it was carried away by Nadir Shah to Persia in 1739.

Under Shah Jahan, the Mogul Empire
 Shah Jahan's sons. was at the summit of its strength and magnificence. Shah Jahan's own estimate of his sons is interesting, "Dara had talents for command, and the dignity becoming the royal office, but was intolerant to all who had any pretensions to eminence; whence he was bad to the good and good to the bad. Shuja was a mere drunkard, and Murad a glutton and sensualist. Aurangazeb excelled both in action and in counsel, was well-fitted to undertake the burden of public affairs, but full of subtle suspicions, and never likely to find any one whom he could trust."

Dara was the eldest son and was therefore the heir apparent to the throne. He was living at the imperial court. He was a free-thinker.

He openly professed the tenets of Akbar, and thus gave offence to zealous Muhammadans. He tried to reconcile the Hindu and Musalman religions. He ordered fifty of the Sanskrit Upanishads to be translated into Persian in 1657, and the Persian translation was afterwards rendered into Latin in 1801 by Dupperon, who made these works first known in Europe.

Shuja was the Governor of Bengal. He was a drunkard and a Shiah by religion. (Shiahs cling to Khoran and observe the Muharram).

Aurangazeb was the Governor of the Dekhan. He was very cunning and distrustful, and was a Sunni by religion. (Sunnis accept the traditions of the moslems, *e.g.*, Arabs, Tartars, Afghans and Rohillas).

Murad was the Governor of Guzerat. He was a stupid and a Sunni by religion.

Fratricidal war. All the four sons of Shah Jahan fought to ascend the throne.

Dara first defeated Shuja, but himself was next defeated by Aurangzeb and Murad jointly. Having known that Murad was a stupid, Aurangzeb tried to cajole him. He pretended that he regarded this world as unsteady and deceitful, and that he never wished to take any part in the Government of such a repulsive world. He said that he had wished to go on a pilgrimage to Mecca. Murad, relying on these words, joined Aurangzeb with the expectation of being crowned Emperor. One day when he was drunk, Aurangzeb sent him away in chains to Gwalior, urging that a drunkard was unfit to be made an Emperor. Thus Aurangzeb, at last, became the Emperor of India.

CHAPTER VII.

AURANGAZEB (1658—1707).

The first three years of Aurangzeb's reign were marked by the defeat and death of his brothers Dara, Shuja, and Murad.

Aurangzeb's reign may be divided into two almost equal parts. For the first twenty-five years, there was war in the Dekhan carried on by his *generals*, and for the next twenty-five years, war in the Dekhan was carried on by *himself*.

1664.

At this time, the Mahrattas were gradually becoming more and more powerful under their leader Sivaji, the son of Shaji Bhonsle. Sivaji ravaged the Dekhan, and levied *Chauth* ($\frac{1}{4}$ of the revenue). He waylaid the pilgrims going to Mecca. Aurangzeb was a zealous Muhammadan. He therefore wished to punish Sivaji. Accordingly he sent Jai Singh and Delir Khan against him. They defeated him. Then Sivaji came to terms. We shall, however, speak more of Sivaji when we speak of the Mahrattas separately.

In 1677, Aurangzeb revived the Jaziya. He made war upon the Rajputs, and created a permanent hatred between

them and the moslems. In 1683, he invaded the Dekhan with his *great army* and conquered Bijapur, in 1686, and Golkonda, in 1687. It would have been a wise policy, if Aurangazeb had left these Muhammadan Kingdoms supreme in the South ; because the Mahrattas were rising in the south-west, and these kingdoms might have served the purpose of keeping in check the Hindu power, because they were towers of strength for the Moslem power. The results of the conquest were disastrous for *himself*, for his *house*, and for the *Mogul power* in India. These kingdoms could not be effectively managed at a distance from the central power.

After the death of Sivaji in 1680, Aurangazeb executed his son Sambhaji in 1689, and the power of the Mahrattas seemed to have gone down temporarily, but they soon recovered their lost power by regaining most of the forts lost before. In 1706 Aurangazeb retired to Ahmadnagar, and died the following year.

Aurangazeb was a Muhammadan bigot. He had not the religious toleration which his great grandfather possessed. In the North, he alienated the Rajputs by his persecutions and by the revival of the iniquitous tax of Jaziya. The Sikhs who were a religious sect at first, now became a nation of terrible warriors. He thus undid the work of Akbar who incorporated the native races into a loyal and united people. Indeed, both the Emperors were distinguished for bravery in war, and for administrative abilities ; both were extraordinarily intelligent, and possessed a vigour and capacity for work ; but the two famous Emperors differed in their policy towards the Rajputs. Akbar, by his large-hearted sympathy and wise and generous toleration, was able to found and weld

Conquest of Bijapur
and Golkonda.

Death of Auranga-
zeb. 1707.

Policy of Auranga-
zeb.

Compared to
Akbar's policy.

Contrasted.

together a great Empire. On the other hand, Aurangazeb was an orthodox Muhammadan, and was distinguished by an ungenerous distrust of all. He was very cunning. His persecutions of the Hindus, his revival of Jaziya and his conquest of Bijapur and Golkonda in the South, all wrecked the great Empire which he had inherited.

Aurangazeb compared to Louis XIV. We may also compare Aurangazeb and Louis XIV, as the rulers of India and France, respectively. Both were contemporary sovereigns. Strangely enough, even the dates of their accession, more or less, coincide, and both died early in the eighteenth century, within a few years of each other. (Aurangazeb died in 1707, and Louis XIV in 1715). The accession of both was marked by the splendour and fame of their dynasties. They resembled each other in their career of conquest and cruel attacks upon weaker neighbours. Both of them waged wasteful and foolish wars, and thereby brought about the ruin of their kingdoms and the weakness of their dynasties. They began to persecute their own subjects on account of the religious bigotry of the monarchs. Aurangazeb revived the Jaziya, and thereby alienated the Rajputs. Louis XIV alienated the Protestants of France, and thereby greatly weakened his kingdom. Both the sovereigns ruled almost absolutely for nearly half a century. As the power of each declined, the commercial greatness of the English nation began to rise.

Aurangazeb's character. As regards his character, we already noticed it clearly in connection with the fratricidal war. The words of a French traveller throw much light upon his position in India. He says, "Aurangazeb was a rare genius, a great statesman, and a great king; but the great Mogul is a foreigner in Hindustan; consequently, he finds himself in a hostile country, or nearly so, containing hundreds of Gentiles (Hindus) to one Mogul, or even to one Muhammadan."

Aurangazeb (or Alamgir) ruled over twenty provinces, but the extension of territory only reduced the strength of the Empire. The Mogul Empire had been in its splendour only for a period of 151 years beginning from the accession of Akbar (1556) down to the death of Aurangazeb (1707). As the French traveller writes, the dynasty was foreign by descent and habits. Akbar and his two successors were the friends of the Hindus. In fact, Jehangir and Shah Jahan were the sons of Hindu mothers; but Aurangazeb, the son of Shah Jahan, was a Muhammadan by *full parentage*, and a bigoted Musalman by temperament. His fanaticism and his unwise policy brought about the fall of the Mogul Empire in India.

CHAPTER VIII.

THE RISE OF THE MAHRATTAS.

The Mahrattas were a powerful race in India even so early as Hiouen-Thsang's visit to India, and remained supreme in the Dekhan down to the twelfth century, after which period, the supreme power was held by the Moslem kingdoms of Ahmadnagar, Bijapur and Golkonda.

It will be remembered that Shaji, the Shaji. Mahratta chief, had tried to keep up the independence of the kingdom of Ahmadnagar, but he was compelled to abandon the attempt, and took service under the Sultan of Bijapur who allowed him to hold Jagirs in Poona and Saoner.

Sivaji (1627-1680). He was born at Saoner in May 1627. He received his education in horsemanship, hunting, and military exercises, under the care of a Brahman named *Dadaji Kundero*; but he was illiterate.

It is rather interesting to notice that some of the greatest names in modern Indian History like *Ala-ud-din, Sivaji, Hyder Ali* and *Ranjit Singh*, are names of men *more or less* illiterate.

Sivaji led the life of a free-booter. In his twentieth year, he formed the bold idea of becoming an independent chief and king. Within a few years, he secured for himself a number of strong forts. He took Torna in 1646, and built Raigarh. He

His conquests. captured *Kondaneh, Gopa, Purandhar* and *Kallian*. On the capture of the last-named fortress, the Sultan of Bijapur was alarmed and imprisoned Shaji for the sins of his son, and even threatened the death of Shaji. Thereupon, Sivaji

Imprisonment and release of Shaji. appealed to the Mogul Emperor Shah Jahan who appointed him to the rank of a commander of 5000 horse, and ordered the release of Shaji from prison. The Sultan of Bijapur sent

1662, Murder of Afzul Khan.

Afzul Khan against Sivaji; but Sivaji murdered Afzul Khan treacherously. This was the incident of the *Tiger's claws*. Thus,

we see that the quarrels between the Moguls and the House of Bijapur gave Sivaji opportunities for creating a new and powerful Hindu kingdom in the South. He, at first, consented to be a feudatory under the Mogul Emperor; but the treachery of Aurangzeb turned him into a mortal enemy. He, with the help of the Peishwa and Morar Punt, attacked the Moguls and

1664.

defeated Shaista Khan, the Viceroy of the Dekhan, who had taken possession of Poona.

Sivaji plundered Surat for six days, assumed the title of *Raja* and struck coins in his own name.

Sivaji was waylaying Mogul ships on their way to Mecca. This offended the religious zeal of Aurangzeb, who, thereupon, sent Jai Singh and Delir Khan against Sivaji who was

called by Aurangazeb, a "Mountain Rat." They defeated him, and Sivaji entered into a treaty, by which Sivaji was to give back all the territories which he had taken from the Moguls; but he was to be allowed to collect *Chauth* ($\frac{1}{4}$ of the total revenue) and *Sirdeshmuki* ($\frac{1}{10}$ of the total revenue), on certain provinces of Bijapur.

In 1666, Sivaji went to the Mogul Court at Delhi. But he was dissatisfied with the reception given to him. He was ordered to be imprisoned, but he soon effected his escape and went to Raigarh. Thereupon, Aurangazeb sent against him Jaswant Singh of Jodhpur, and Muazzim, the Viceroy of the Dekhan; but Sivaji defeated both of them. Bijapur and Golkonda were compelled to pay tribute. Sivaji was crowned king at Raigarh in 1674. In 1676, he took Jinji, Vellore and other places, and three years later, he plundered Jalna. On the 5th April 1680, Sivaji died at Raigarh at the age of fifty-three.

Before his death in 1680, his kingdom extended from the Nurbudda to beyond the Krishna. Aurangazeb himself said of Sivaji, "He was a great captain, and the only one who has had a soul great enough to raise a new kingdom, while I have been endeavouring to destroy the ancient sovereignties of India."

It must, however, be admitted that his acts of treachery and assassination form a blot on his character; but he was kind to his people, and to women and children taken in war.

Sambhaji, the son of Sivaji, was a tool in the hands of his Brahman minister *Kulusha*. He beheaded many Mahratta officers who had supported his younger brother Raja Ram to the throne, and

Treaty of Purandhar, 1664.

Sivaji at Delhi, 1666.

Sivaji's Coronation, 1674.

Sivaji died, 1680.

Aurangazeb's estimate of Sivaji.

Sambhaji (1680-1689).

imprisoned Morar Punt, the *Peishwa* (the Mahratta prime-minister). He defeated the Portuguese at Goa. In 1683, he was taken by surprise by the Moguls and carried off to Delhi while drunk, and he was murdered there. Sambhaji's son, Sahu, was also carried off to Delhi, where he was brought up at the Mogul Court.

On the death of Sambhaji, Raja Ram, his half-brother, was appointed regent. (See Genealogical Table).

1698.

When Raja Ram was at Jinji, Aurangzeb sent Zulphikar Khan against him; but Raja Ram effected his escape and died. Raja Ram's widow, Tara Bai, became the regent of her son Sivaji (see Genealogical Tree); but Sambhaji's son, Sahu, was released by the Moguls on condition of his being a vassal of the Emperor; and a truce was concluded with him, by which the Moguls promised to pay the *Chauth* claimed by the Mahrattas. Sahu, having been trained in the imperial zenana, was effeminate and quite unable to govern such a war-like people as the Mahrattas. His weakness threw the power into the hands of his Brahman ministers known as the *Peishwas*, in whose hands he was a puppet, and the puppet danced when the wire-pullers were at work. Sahu was therefore a "Do-nothing" king. The *Peishwas* were really supreme.

In this connection, we have to remember that this is one of the instances of the ministerial dynasty supplanting the royal house in consequence of the weakness of the latter. We shall learn another instance, similar to this, when we speak of the Afghan war, in the time of Lord Auckland.

Balaji Viswanath
(1714-1720.)

1718.

Balaji Viswanath was the first *Peishwa*, and the founder of a hereditary supreme power. He joined the Sayyids—Sayyid Hussain Ali and Sayyid Abdulla—who were called the "King Makers", and invaded Hindustan against the Mogul Emperor. Farruk Sivar.

1720.

The Peishwa was allowed by the Emperor to collect Chauth throughout the Dekhan.

Battle of Shapur,
1720.

The Mahrattas defeated the Sayyids at Shapur. The same year, the Peishwa died.

Baji Row
(1720-1740.)

Baji Row, the son of Balaji Viswanath, was the second Peishwa, and was called the *greatest* of the Peishwas. During his administration, he obtained the rule of the Dekhan, and aimed at the extension of the Mahratta power in Hindustan.

His aim.

His policy.

Baji Row wished to send the Mahratta chiefs far away from Satara, and to make them attend, in such distant parts, to the work of collecting *Chauth*, while at the same time, he bound the chiefs to the central power (the Peishwa *really*, and the king *nominally*), by ordering them to render accounts to the Peishwa. Each of the Mahratta chiefs, considered separately, was not strong enough to oppose the central authority.

His conquests.

Baji Row invaded Malwa and Guzerat, and collected Chauth in 1732. In 1739, he captured Bassein which belonged to the Portuguese at this time.

There were at this time certain Mahratta leaders who gathered around themselves bands of horsemen who claimed the right to plunder and levy contributions over certain districts; but all these rendered more or less a loyal allegiance to the Peishwas. The chief branches of these Mahrattas were five

Five branches of
Mahrattas.

in number, and they established themselves as independent powers. (1) The *Peishwas* (the real rulers) at Poona. (2) The *Bhonsles* at Nagpur. (3) *Sindia* at Gwalior. Sindia's ancestors were hereditary *shipper-bearers* to the dignified Peishwas. (4) *Holkar*

at Indore. Holkar's ancestors were shepherds. (5) The *Gaikwar* at Baroda.

Sambhaji, the son of Raja Ram, set up a rival court at *Kolhapur*. He was assisted by Nizam-ul-mulk. Baji Row therefore compelled Nizam-ul-mulk at *Bhopal* to sign a *Convention at Seronje*, by which (1) Baji Row was to get the whole of Malwa, and the sovereignty over the territory between the Chambal and the Nerbudda. This promise of the Nizam was to be confirmed by the Mogul Emperor. (2) The Nizam was to pay fifty lakhs of rupees towards the expenses of the Peishwa.

Baji Row invaded the Dekhan and died. Baji Row died 1740. He was succeeded by his son Balaji Baji Row. (See Genealogical Tree.)

Balaji Baji Row was, therefore, the third Peishwa. His supremacy was opposed by the Bhonsles, but the Emperor confirmed him as Peishwa. The third Peishwa spread the terror of the Mahrattas throughout India. The authority of the Peishwas became still more powerful by the death of Sahu died 1748. the puppet sovereign, Sahu. The death of an Indian Raja was almost always followed by a disputed succession. At the end of the struggle, we notice that the stronger party survives. Accordingly, after the death of Sahu, there were three claimants to the throne:—(See Genealogical Table.)

(1) The cause of Raja Ram was supported by Tara Bai.

(2) The family of Kolhapur was supported by Sahu's widow.

(3) Balaji Baji Row wished to become sovereign.

With a view to get the throne, Balaji Baji Row acted as Regent of Raja Ram, and removed the capital from Satara to Poona. A glance at the map will show the reason for such a

change of capital. It is evident that Satara is nearer to Kolhapur where a rival court was set up, and that Poona, being far from Kolhapur, was a better capital. This change of capital roused the anger of Tara Bai who imprisoned Raja Ram till her death in 1761. Thus Balaji Baji Row became the real king, though still nominally the Peishwa.

In 1742, the Mahrattas invaded Bengal. Balaji Baji Row reduced Mysore and the Karnatic; Raghunath Row captured Lahore, while Mulhar Row Holkar overran Bundelkhand. In 1743, he compelled the Emperor to give up Malwa which was divided between Holkar and Sindia.

The Mahrattas under Sivadas Row, defeated Salabat Jung and Nizam Ali, and took the forts of Daulatabad, Asirgarh, Bijapur, Ahmadnagar and Aurangabad. Thus, the Mahratta power, during the reign of Balaji Baji Row, attained its "greatest limits."

In the same reign, it received its "crushing blow." In 1760, the Mahrattas made a raid upon the Panjab and captured Lahore. This roused the anger of the great Afghan ruler, Ahmad Shah Durani, who was only waiting for an opportunity to crush the Mahrattas. Such an opportunity was offered when the Mahrattas tried to conquer the Mogul Empire by capturing Delhi. Ahmad Shah helped the Emperor and crushed the Mahrattas at Panipat in 1761.

1761. Battle of Panipat, III. Viswas Row, the son of Balaji Baji Row, was slain in this battle, and the other Mahrattas fled away. (Compare the causes and results of this battle with those of the battle of Flodden). Balaji Baji Row died of a broken heart, when he heard that his son Viswas Row died.

Madu Row was the fourth Peishwa, and Narayana Row was the fifth, who was killed soon after.

CHAPTER IX.

THE MOGUL PERIOD (*Continued*)

Bahadur Shah
(1707-1712.)

Bahadur Shah was the eldest son of Aurangazeb, and therefore, (according to the law of Primogeniture, by which is meant that the first born should succeed) he succeeded his father. His prime-minister was Zulphikar Khan.

After the death of Aurangazeb, owing to the weakness of his successors, (1) the Rajputs asserted their independence, refusing to pay the Jazia, (2) the Sikhs became more powerful, (3) the Nizam of the Dekhan became independent at Hyderabad, and he (Nizam-ul-mulk) founded the dynasty of the Nizams of the Dekhan. (See Genealogical Table of the Nizams of the Dekhan). (4) Saadut Ali founded the royal family of Oudh and (5) Fort William was founded by the English on the Ganges.

Jahandar Shah, a debauched prince, was killed by Farruk Siyar. He was succeeded by his murderer who was helped by the two Sayyids, Hus-sain Ali, governor of Behar, and Abdulla, governor of Allahabad. Farruk Siyar killed not only Jahandar Shah, but also Zulphikar Khan, in the Battle of Agra. Farruk Siyar now felt that his position was due to the Sayyids who might at any time depose him. He, therefore, tried to shake off the power of the Sayyids; but when the latter discovered it, they killed Farruk Siyar, and placed two infant kings on the throne in succession, and murdered them, and next raised Muhammad Shah to the throne. Hence the Sayyids were called the "*King Makers.*"

Jahandar Shah
(1712-1713).

Farruk Siyar
(1713-1719.)

Battle of Agra, 1713.

Muhammad Shah was the last Emperor that sat on the peacock throne. (The first was Shah Jahan). Sayyid Hussain Ali was killed and Abdulla was defeated at *Shahpur* between Delhi and Agra.

Muhammad Shah
(1719-1748)
Battle of Shahpur,
1720.

Nadir Shah invaded India and defeated the Moguls at *Karnal*, and the Mogul Emperor promised to give a large sum of money. To receive this promised sum of money, Nadir Shah went to Delhi, where he was well entertained by the Emperor; but a false rumour that Nadir Shah died encouraged the imperial soldiers who killed the soldiers of the Persian king, Nadir Shah. Nadir Shah, thereupon, grew very angry, and ordered, the next day, that all the inhabitants of Delhi should be murdered in cold blood. He plundered the city and carried off the valuable peacock throne to Persia.

Nadir Shah's
invasion,
Battle of Karnal,
1739.

Delhi massacre.

The Mogul Empire at this time included part of the Upper Duab, and the districts south of the Sutlej.

Ahmad Shah
(1748-1754).
Battle of Sarhind,
1747.

Muhammad Shah was succeeded by Ahmad Shah whose reign was marked by a war with the Rohillas. In 1747, Ahmad Shah Durani, the successor of Nadir Shah was defeated at *Sarhind* by the Emperor. Ghiasuddin, then, deposed the Emperor, and Alamgir II. ascended the throne. (Aurangzeb was called Alamgir I.).

Shah Alam II.
(1761-1803).

Shah Alam II. was the son of Muhammad Shah. (See Genealogical Table). Ahmad Shah Durani, after defeating the Mahrattas at Panipat in 1761, placed an Afghan, Zabita Khan, on the throne of Delhi.

Battle of Buxar II, 1764. Shah Alam II. and the Nawab of Oudh were defeated by the English, in the second battle of Buxar. Shah Alam surrendered to the English, became a pensioner and resided at Allahabad. He gave the Dewani (the right to collect the revenue) of Bengal, Behar and Orissa to the English.

In 1771, Mahadaji Sindia drove Zabita Khan from Delhi, and took Shah Alam under his protection. Shah Alam being the nominal Emperor, the Mahrattas were the real rulers at this time.

Shah Alam finally granted pension. In 1788, Gulam Khadir, the son of Zabita Khan, took Delhi and put out the eyes of the Emperor. In 1803, Shah Alam was rescued from the Mahrattas by General Lake, and was granted pension.

Shah Alam's grandson, Bahadur Shah, was accused of massacring the English in the Great Indian Mutiny, and was sent to Rangoon, where he died in 1862.

CHAPTER X.

A GENERAL REVIEW OF THE MUSALMAN RULE.

Having carefully followed the course of events during the period that India was governed by the Muhammadans, we must now possess a general idea of the condition of the country and the people under the Musalman rule.

Administration. We have already learnt something about the system of administration adopted by the Moguls, in our account of the reign of Akbar. The Empire was divided into Provinces or Subahs, each under a Viceroy or Subahdar, who was practically supreme in his own province. He regularly remitted the imperial revenue, and acknowledged the supremacy of the Emperor. Sometimes the office of Viceroy was hereditary. Under the Viceroys were

appointed Dewans (Revenue Collectors), and Foujdars (Commanders-in-Chief), Kazis (Judges to try civil cases in towns), and Kotwals (heads of town-police); but agricultural villages had their affairs administered by Village Communities.

EMPIRE *under* the Mogul EMPEROR.

PROVINCES *under* VICEROYS.

DISTRICTS *under* DEWANS AND FOUJDARS.

TOWNS *under* KAZIS AND KOTWALS.

VILLAGES *under* VILLAGE COMMUNITIES.

Jagirs were often granted by the Emperor to his favourites, and to military officers under the Empire. These enjoyed the revenue, of course, subject to the payment of the imperial revenue, and to the performance of their duties. Akbar was against this policy of granting jagirs, on the ground that it decreased the crown lands and the imperial revenue, and he adopted the system of paying his officers in money. The weakness of his successors multiplied Jagirdars in all parts of India.

Taxation.

Generally speaking, lands other than the Jagirs, belonged to the *Crown*, and the revenue was realised by the Subahdar, and remitted to the imperial treasury. The chief sources of imperial revenue were (1) Tolls, (2) Taxes on trades and live-stock, (3) House-cess, (4) Collections at Hindu and Muhammadan fairs and festivals, (5) Taxes on spirits, gambling houses, and (6) a percentage on debts realized by the help of Magistrates.

As the result of oppression by imperial State of the people. officers, people became thoroughly accustomed to abject subjection which made them incapable of combined action and great undertakings. Notwithstanding all this, Agriculture, arts and trade, flourished tolerably well in India during the Musalman rule.

EUROPEAN COMPETITION FOR INDIAN TRADE.

CHAPTER I.

ITALY AND PORTUGAL.

Italy. From time immemorial, the European trade with the rich eastern countries, particularly with India, has been attended with large profit. Arab merchants carried Indian goods to Bagdad, Syria and Constantinople, whence they found their way to Europe. The Roman Emperors monopolized the Commercial navigation of the Red Sea.

Venice and Genoa. Next came the turn of the two Italian cities, Venice and Genoa, to rise into splendid prominence by importing into Europe, the precious articles of Asia.

Capital events of the fifteenth Century. At the end of the fifteenth century, two capital events suddenly and simultaneously occurred—the *Discovery of America* by Columbus and the *Doubling of the Cape of Good Hope*. Their effect was to expand the maritime trade with Asia, and to increase, very largely, the supply of gold and silver, for exchange against the products of Asia. This new field of enterprise gave rise to a keen contest for superiority among the European nations. By the end of the sixteenth century, Venice and Genoa ceased to have the chief control of Eastern trade in European waters. The maritime people of Western Europe obtained command over the rich Indian trade with

Europe. For a time, the trade was almost monopolized by

Portugal.

1498.

Portugal whose kings showed admirable activity in sending out fleets to the coast of South Asia. In 1498, Vasco de Gama landed at Calicut where he found the Arab

merchants hostile to him; but the Zamorin of Calicut sent him back with a friendly invitation to the king of Portugal to promote trade between India and Portugal. About the year

Portuguese factories
1500.

1500, the Portuguese under Alvarez Cabral, established factories near *Calicut* and *Cochin*. A favourable opportunity offered

itself to the Portuguese to increase their power by interfering in the affairs of the Natives. At this time, the Raja of Cochin and the Zamorin of Calicut were opposed to each other, and the Raja of Cochin applied to the Portuguese for aid. There-

Duarte Pachees.

upon, the Portuguese Captain, *Duarte Pachees*, with the help of 300 Malabar Native troops of Cochin, defeated the Zamorin of Calicut. Fraser in his "Story of Nations", says, "He was the *first* to show to the West the possibility of founding an Empire in India." He followed the policy of defeating the natives with the help of the natives. The same policy was followed, *later*, by the English.

This is an instance of an internal dissension in India, causing one of the parties that are fighting to apply to a stranger for aid, against the other party. For similar instances, compare the Raja of Kanouj applying to Muhammad Ghori for aid, against the Raja of Delhi and Ajmere; compare also what led to the first battle of Panipat.

1503, Portuguese
fort at Cochin.

Almeida's policy.

In 1503, after defeating the Zamorin, the Portuguese established a fort and garrison at *Cochin*. The first Portuguese Viceroy was Almeida who was appointed in 1505.

His policy was one of *Commerce*.

The Sultan of Egypt sent a fleet against the Portuguese, but it was defeated by Almeida at *Diu*. The successor of Almeida was Alphonso Albuquerque. His policy was to create a *Portuguese Empire* in India. He vainly tried to capture Calicut. In 1510, he captured *Goa*, and made it the capital of the Portuguese possessions in the East. In 1514, he took *Malacca* and *Ormuz*, the key to the Persian trade, and the proudest sea-port in Asia. He was deprived of his office in 1515, by his ungrateful sovereign. He died at *Goa* four years later.

1509, Battle of Diu. Alphonso's policy.

Alphonso's conquests.

1515, his losing Office.

1519, his death.

In 1632, Hugli was stormed after a siege of three months undertaken by order of Shah Jahan. This marks the reduction of the Portuguese power in India to its present condition.

The Portuguese Empire was at the height of its power and glory during the sixteenth century. From the Cape of Good Hope to the frontier of China, an extent of 12,000 miles of coast, all the chief trade marts belonged to the Portuguese. Mozambique in Africa; Muscat in Arabia; Ormuz in Persia; Diu, Goa, Cochin and other ports on the Malabar Coast; St. Thomas, Madras and Masulipatam on the Coromandel Coast; Malacca and the Spice Islands in the Indian Archipelago, all belonged to the Portuguese. (See map in an Atlas).

Extent of the Portuguese Empire in India.

Nevertheless, their period of triumphant prosperity was short; for, in 1580, Portugal was annexed by Spain. This exposed the Portuguese possessions to the attacks of the Dutch, who were the enemies of Spain. In the struggle, the Dutch gradually drove the Portuguese off the sea, and thus

Why was Portuguese prosperity short-lived?

weakened their hold upon their East Indian Empire. The Spaniards were indifferent to the loss of the Portuguese possessions, because, they found it easier to dig up the precious metals in America than to make long voyages to India; and even as regards the precious metals, instead of *using* their treasure, they began to *hoard* it. (The pupil should learn the meaning of "The Mercantile Theory"). We know from the

The cause of Spanish hostility to the Dutch.

affairs in Europe at this period, that Spain was a Roman Catholic power under Philip, and that Netherlands were owned by Spain; but, the people of Netherlands were Protestants. This religious difference mainly accounts for the hostility of Spain to Holland (Netherlands). Elizabeth recognized the independence of the Dutch Republic. Thus, both England and Holland were against Spain which commanded the Portuguese possessions in India, on account of the annexation of Portugal to Spain. In the end, the Spaniards yielded to the Dutch the right to trade in the East Indies.

The four causes of the failure of the Portuguese to establish a permanent Empire in India.

From what we have learnt about the Portuguese Empire in India, we must be in a position to account for the failure of the Portuguese to establish a permanent Empire in India. One of the causes has already been described, namely, the annexation of Portugal to Spain in 1580, the latter power being more particular about American precious metals than the prosperity of Indian Commerce. The second cause is the smallness of her population. The third cause is the corruption of her soldiers from habits of luxury and intermarriage with native women; and lastly the Portuguese suffered heavy losses in war.

CHAPTER II.

HOLLAND AND FRANCE.

Holland.

In the latter part of the sixteenth century, Netherlands shook off the yoke of Spain, and became a Republic. The Dutch soon rose as a naval and commercial power. They first reached India in 1596. Various private Companies were subsequently formed for the East Indian trade. All the Dutch Companies were united in 1602, under the name of the "United East India Company." The Dutch East India Com-

Constitution of the
Dutch East India
Company.

pany was very closely connected with the Dutch Republic. For example, in 1618, this Company was composed of the Privy Council, the nobility, judges and gentry. It was also furnished with a stock of £1,600,000. The State of Holland was incorporate in its Company. The French East India Company was exactly similar to the Dutch East India Company in this respect of being connected with the State.

The French East
India Company is
also similar.

How they differed
from the English
East India Com-
pany.

The English East India Company was, on the other hand, a *private* association, and more or less independent of the State from the date of its origin up to the end of the eighteenth century. The State occasionally demanded a share of profits, and assisted the Company on certain occasions. The Company was armed with a valuable monopoly, and depended more upon their *own wealth and energy* than upon the *State*.

Why the Dutch
and the English
Joint Stock Com-
pany could not be
formed.

At this time, there was a proposal by Holland that the Dutch and the English should form one Joint Stock Company, and combine against Spain. This proposal had

stubborn adherence of James I. to a Spanish alliance. (Read the foreign policy of James I. in the History of England).

1619. The Dutch made *Batavia* in Java their East Indian Capital.

1623. Massacre at Amboyna. The Dutch massacred almost all the English at *Amboyna* in the Moluccas. Thus, the English were driven out of the Archipelago; and throughout the seventeenth century, the Dutch were supreme in the Archipelago. They gradually took from the Portuguese many of their possessions, both in the Archipelago and in India. They took Formosa and Malacca, and thus destroyed the Portuguese power in the East. 1640. 1647. Seven years later, the Dutch began to trade at Sadras. This was the *first* time that they came to continental India and built their *first* Indian factory at *Pulicat*. The Dutch also expelled the Portuguese from Ceylon after taking *Jaffna*. 1652.

Dutch Settlements in India. The Dutch Settlements in *India* were Negapatam, Sadras and Pulicat.

The Policy of the Dutch. The Dutch did not introduce their civilization among the natives. Their policy was to control a monopoly in spices. They were somewhat hasty in seizing points of vantage, which led them into open quarrels with the native chiefs. The English, on the other hand (as we shall see later on), confined themselves to commerce in the seventeenth century.

The decline of the Dutch Power. By the advice of Lord Clive, Colonel Forde took the Dutch Settlement of Chinsura in 1759, because, the Dutch at Chinsura demanded that their ships might pass without an English pilot, and claimed for the trade in salt-petre to be free without being monopolized. Chinsura taken 1759.

by the English. The capture of Chinsura in 1759 marks the decline of the Dutch power in India.

Dutch possessions in India at present. At present, there are no Dutch possessions in India or Ceylon. The English annexed their settlements in these countries in 1815 (in the time of Napoleon); but England restored to Holland, in 1814, the island of Java.

Denmark. The Danes also tried to have a share in the East Indian trade, but they never had sufficient power to carry out their plan. They, however, formed their first East India Company in 1612. They settled at Serampore (near Calcutta), Tranquebar, Porto-Novo and Eldova on the Malabar Coast. In 1845, the English bought Serampore and Tranquebar.

France. We have seen that, at the beginning of the seventeenth century, the Dutch and the English combined to destroy the colonies and commerce of Spain and Portugal; but, when the power of the Spanish Empire began to decrease, England and Holland began to fight with each other. At this stage, Portugal joined England against Holland, and gave her the island of Bombay, in 1661. The fighting weakened both the English and the Dutch; and the two nations became distrustful of a new nation, the French, who began to contend for Supremacy in India, in the eighteenth century.

1664,
The French East
India Company. In 1664, Colbert, the great French minister of Louis XIV, formed a French East India Company. Although the Company was connected with the State, yet it was not well supported by the State, and hence the Company was weak.

Pondicherry acquired by the French. In 1672, the last native ruler of Bijapur, Sher Khan Lodi, found himself in want of money, and borrowed the sum he required

1673. from the French, giving them in return the right to collect the revenues arising from the district around *Pondicherry*. Here
 1674. Francis Martin fortified his position. Thus, Pondicherry was acquired for this Company by Francis Martin, the real founder of the French power in India.

French factories were established at Surat in 1664, at Pondicherry in 1673, and at Chandernagore in 1688. Pondicherry became the capital of French India.

CHAPTER III.

ENGLAND.

England. We have already noticed that, in the sixteenth century, the Dutch controlled the sea-borne trade and had the monopoly in spices. This naturally roused the spirit of competition among the English. In 1599, the Dutch raised the price of pepper from 3 sh. per lb. to 8 sh. per lb. The London merchants, thereupon, held a meeting and resolved upon forming an association for direct trade with the East Indies. This was the first *private* Company formed to carry on the Eastern trade, and it received a Charter from the English sovereign, on the 31st. December, 1600. By this charter, the Company received the right of legal succession with power to purchase lands, to sue and to be sued, and to have a common seal. The management was to be in the hands of a governor and 24 committee members annually elected, in July. The attention of the Company was at first turned to the Spice Islands; but after the Massacre of Amboyna, the English left those islands to the Dutch and confined their attention to India. The first Englishman (according to Fraser) that ever visited India was *Thomas Stevens*,

In 1612, the English under Captain Best, with the permission of the Muhammadans to trade at Surat, established a factory there. The advantage of Surat was that to it came caravans from the interior, that it was the port for Mecca, and that it carried on trade with Arabia, Persian Gulf, Ceylon, Sumatra and Europe, especially in silk, Cotton and indigo. In 1622, another factory was established at Masulipatam. The next year, the English were driven from the Archipelago by the Massacre of Amboyna. In 1626, an English factory was founded at Armagon by Francis Day. (Thus, Armagon was not the earliest settlement on the Coromandel Coast). In 1633, factories were founded at Balasore and Hariharpur. In 1650, the English established a factory at Hugli. In 1638, Armagon was given up, and on the 1st. of March, 1640, Madras was founded by Francis Day on a piece of land acquired from Darmala Venkattadri Naidu, Zemindar of Kalahastri, confirmed by a Sanad from Rangah VI, the Raja of Chandragiri. Fort St. George was built, and a garrison of 26 soldiers was brought to guard it.

In 1644, Shah Jahan allowed the English to trade in Bengal free of duties, and to establish factories at Hugli and Balasore. This he did as a reward to Gabriel Boughton, a surgeon of an English vessel, for his having cured Shah Jahan's daughter who burnt her clothes at Agra.

In 1652, the English established agencies at Patna and other places in Bengal. In 1657, English factories were established at Kazimbazaar and Dacca.

In 1668, the East India Company received Bombay for an annual rent of £10 from Charles II., whose wife got it as a dowry from her father, the King of Portugal, in 1661.

In 1685, the head of the English in Bengal was Job Charnock. He married a Hindu wife whom he had rescued from Sati, and became partly Hinduised.

In 1687, the Company changed their headquarters on the Western coast from Surat to Bombay. (There was also a change, similar to this, on the Eastern coast from Armagon to Madras.)

1686—1689. The Governor of Bengal attacked the English settlements in Bengal and took their factories. In 1691, Aurangazeb allowed the English to resettle in Bengal, lest trade should suffer.

1690. The Company soon organized their settlements like a sovereign body. Aurangazeb allowed the English to trade in his country without duty, on consideration of a payment of Rs. 3000 per annum.

1699. In 1691, Fort St. David was built. The English, the French and the Dutch, fortified their factories respectively at Sutanuti, Chandernagore and Chinsura.

1700. The English formally *bought* from the son of Aurangazeb the three villages of Sutanuti, Govindpur and Kalikata (Calcutta). These three villages were afterwards united into one town, Calcutta.

1707. Fort William was built. (It was named after William III. the King of England.)

1715. An embassy from the Company was sent to Farrukh Siyar. Dr. Hamilton, its surgeon, cured the Emperor of a bad disease, and in return, got for the Company the rights of a free passage of goods and of coinage.

It is interesting to notice that each of the three Presidency towns, Bombay, Madras and Calcutta, was acquired by the English by some kind of *purchase*.

1698. A new English Company trading to the East Indies was formed, but it did not

work well. So, in 1708, the old and the new Companies were united under the name of the "United East India Company."

Chronological list of the Early English Settlements in India:—

- 1612. A factory at Surat under Captain Best.
- 1622. A factory at Masulipatam.
- 1626. A factory at Armagon.
- 1633. Factories were founded at Balasore and Hariharpur.
- 1640. Madras bought from the Raja of Chandragiri.
- 1650. A factory at Hugli.
- 1652. Agency at Patna.
- 1657. English factories at Kazimbazaar and Dacca.

[1654. Madras was made a separate Presidency, and Fort St. George was erected. The English bought Tegnapatam, south of Pondicherry. If you look at the map, you will see that Pondicherry, the French capital, lies between Madras and Tegnapatam, which contain respectively the two English Forts, Fort St. George and Fort St. David.]

1658. Patna, Kazimbazaar, Hugli and Dacca were made English agencies.

- 1668. The East India Company got Bombay.
- 1687. Trading centre changed from Surat to Bombay.
- 1691. Fort St. David was built.
- 1700. Calcutta bought.
- 1707. Fort William was built and made a Presidency town.

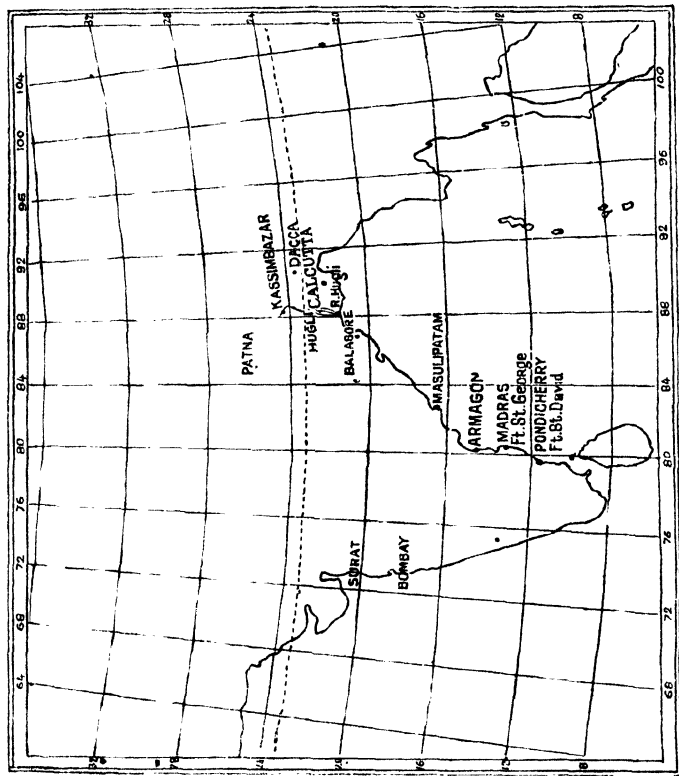
CHAPTER IV.

THE STRUGGLE BETWEEN THE ENGLISH AND THE FRENCH.

Situation at the
beginning of the
eighteenth century.

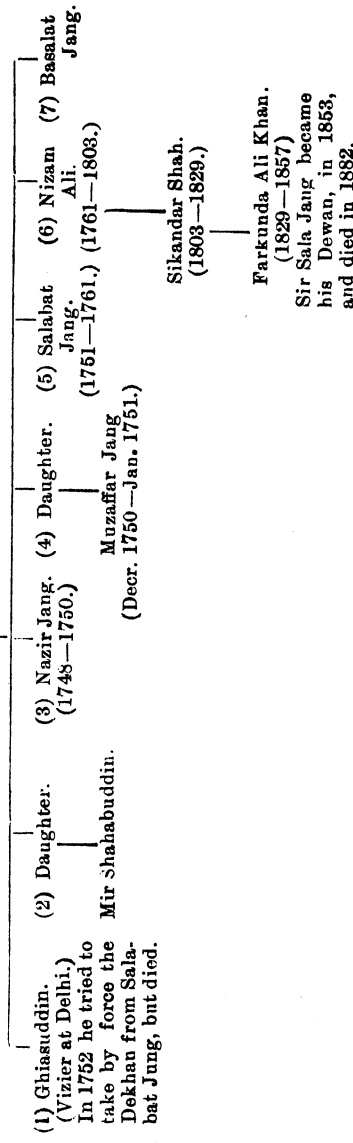
At the opening of the eighteenth century, the situation may be briefly stated. The *Dutch Company* was still rich, and was carrying on the Eastern trade tolerably

Map showing the early English Settlements in India.



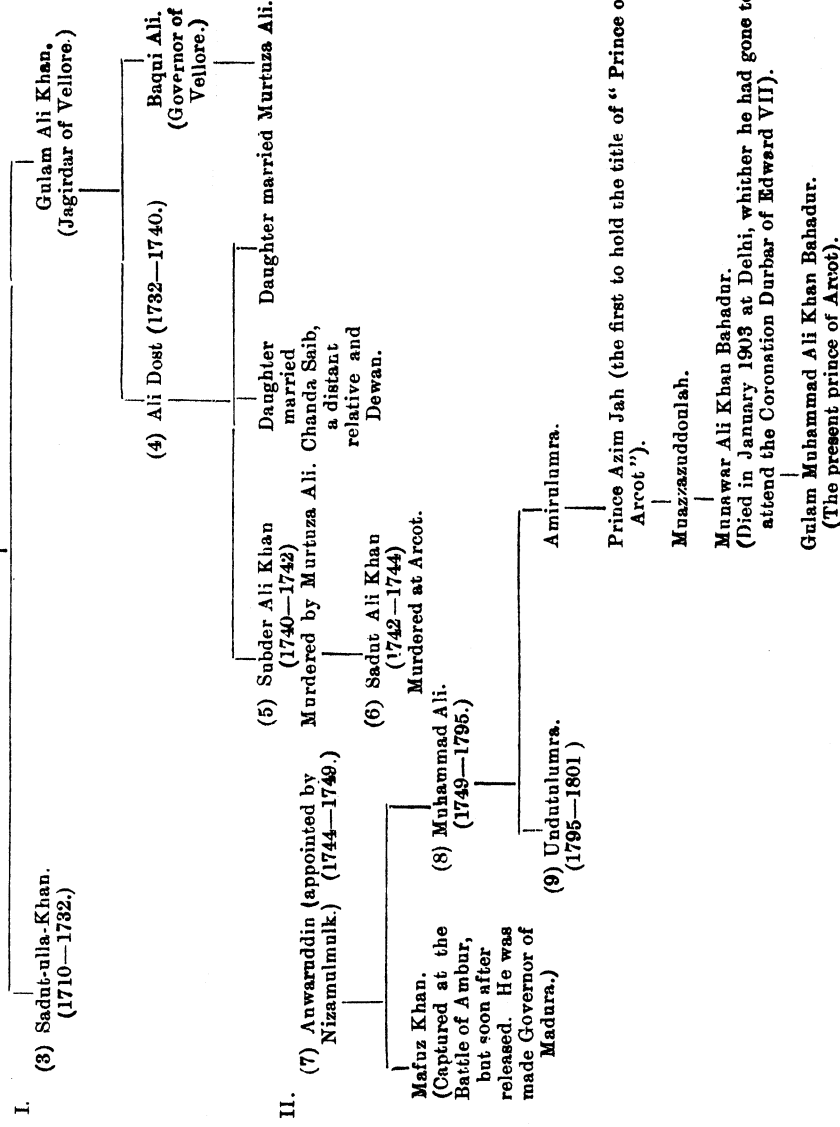
Genealogical Table of the Nizams of Hyderabad.

Nizamulmulk (1713--1748).



Genealogical Table of the Nawabs of the Karnatic.

Agi Batti Muhammad Khan.



The Dutch Company.

well. Ceylon and some Indian stations were held by the Company; but as the century advanced, their naval power declined.

The French Company.

The French Company, on the other hand, were deep in debt, and were altogether unable to push forward enterprises in Asia. They were at the mercy of the Crown. Too much interference of the Government was the cause of the misfortunes of the Company.

The English Company.

The English Company were in a flourishing condition, and had obtained a strong and firm foothold on India, while the Mogul Empire was still held together under Aurangazeb.

The Anglo-French struggle.

Hitherto, the policy of the French and the English had remained strictly *commercial*: but during the period which we are now approaching, the Indian Governments became weak, competition increased, and the violent quarrels between England and France began. All these circumstances changed the commercial rivalry into a struggle for political superiority. This struggle for political superiority continued for nearly twenty years in South India.

Independent States after the death of Aurangazeb.

Nizam-ul-mulk.

After the death of Aurangazeb, the imperial authority became weak, and several states under Viceroys asserted their independence. Nizam-ul-mulk, the Viceroy of the Dekhan, was one of these Viceroys. The whole of the Karnatic was under his control. At first, he rose to distinction under Aurangazeb and was a vizier to Muhammad Shah. He was made Subahdar of the Dekhan in 1713. His real name was Mirkamruddin Khan. He died in 1748. (See Genealogical Table).

Nawabs of the
Karnatic.

Under the Nizam of the Dekhan was the Nawab of the Karnatic. (1) Zulphikar Ali Khan was the Nawab of the Karnatic, (1692-1703). (2) His successor was Daud Khan (1703-1710), and (3) the third Nawab was Sadat-ulla-Khan (1710-1732). It was this Sadat-ulla-khan that raised that office to anything like independence. (See Genealogical Table).

1739. The French
acquired Karikal.

In 1739, the French obtained *Karikal* by helping a claimant to the throne of Tanjore.

Thus, the French showed the way to the English to increase European power and influence in India by interfering in the affairs of the natives. Similarly in 1749, the English acquired *Devikottah* by interfering in the affairs of Tanjore.

First Karnatic War,
(1744-1749).

England and France were at war in 1744 (see English History). In the same year,

Anwaruddin was appointed Nawab of the Karnatic by the Nizam. In 1745, an English fleet was ready to fight with the French on the Coromandel Coast. Dupleix was the Governor of Pondicherry at this time. He induced Anwaruddin to forbid the English to attack Pondicherry.

1746.
Capture of Madras
by Labourdonnais.

In 1746, a French fleet under Labourdonnais drove the English fleet off the Coromandel Coast, and captured Madras; but Labourdonnais promised to restore it to the English on payment of a ransom. Dupleix refused to respect this promise and confiscated the property of the English. Labourdonnais left India. The French nation treated this distinguished officer with ingratitude. On his return to France, he was imprisoned in the State Prison in Paris (Bastille) for three years, and died shortly after his release. Dupleix took Madras and sent the English to Pondicherry as prisoners of war.

The Nawab of the Karnatic was annoyed at the action of Dupleix, and sent an army of 10,000 men under his son, Mafuz Khan, (see Genealogical Table) against the French, to recover Madras. The French were only 400 strong,

2nd November 1746, still, they defeated the Nawab's troops at
 Battle of St. Thomē, on the 2nd. of November 1746.

This defeat showed the natives that the Europeans were not so weak as had been imagined. It also showed how the humble European traders were by far superior in disciplined valour to the vast armies led by the Indian chiefs.

Thus, the French made the two important discoveries for conquering India : (1) The native armies were weak against European discipline. (2) It was easy to impart that discipline to natives in the service of Europeans. It must be remembered that these discoveries were made the best use of by the *English*.

Major Lawrence with a land force and Admiral Boscawen with an English fleet jointly attacked Pondicherry without success.

Treaty of Aix-la-chapelle, 1748.

It was by the treaty of Aix-la-Chapelle that Madras was restored to the English.

Events of 1748.
 disputed successions
 in the Dekhan.

The year 1748 was an epoch year in the history of India. It saw three deaths and an invasion. (1) The Mogul Emperor, Muhammad Shah, died at Delhi. He has been called the "Seal of the House of Babar." (2) The Mahratta sovereign, Sahu, died at Satara, and the Peishwas became rulers. (3) Nizam-ul-mulk died at Hyderabad. (4) Ahmad Shah invaded the Panjab.

The death of Nizam-ul-mulk created anarchy in the Dekhan. The disputed succession in Hyderabad gave a fitting opportunity for the English and the French to begin operations by interfering in the affairs of the Native States.

Claimants to the
throne
of Hyderabad.

At this time, the eldest son of Nizam-ul-mulk was at Delhi. The next proper heir to the throne was Nazir Jang ; but as he was a debauchee, his right to the throne was set aside by Nizam-ul-mulk in his life-time, and a *will* was left behind bequeathing the throne to his grandson Muzaffar Jang, but when his grandfather died, Muzaffar Jang was at Bijapur. Nazir Jang who was at hand, seized the treasures and proclaimed himself Nizam. Thus, the two competitors to the throne of Hyderabad were *Muzaffar Jang* whose claim was based on his grandfather's will, and *Nazir Jang* whose claim was based on his nearer relationship as the son of the Nizam. The latter won the favour of the army by a lavish distribution of money among the chief men.

Effect of the death
of the Nizam on the
Karnatic.

The death of the Nizam considerably weakened the position of *Anwaruddin* who, as we saw, was appointed by the Nizam in 1744. His weakness was taken advantage of by one *Chanda Saib*, another member of the Karnatic family, who put forward his claim to be the Nawab. Thus, the two competitors to the Nawabship of the Karnatic were *Anwaruddin* and *Chanda Saib*. (See Genealogical Tree.)

The part played by
the English and the
French in the dis-
puted successions.

At this time, Dupleix was aiming at the creation of a French Empire in India. He wished to establish in the Karnatic, the province within whose jurisdiction lay both Madras and Pondicherry, a ruler who should be dependent on the French connection. He really desired to have great influence at the Court of the Nizam to whom the Karnatic was still subordinate, at least in name. The disputed successions gave a fitting opportunity for Dupleix to realize his objects. The English could not but take up the opposite side, as com-

petitors. When *Dupleix* helped *Muzaffar Jang* and *Chanda Sahib*, the *English* aided *Nazir Jang* and *Anwaruddin*.

1749, Battle of
Ambur.

of Anwaruddin, fled to Trichinopoly, and Chanda Sahib was

Results of the First
Karnatic War.

(1) Chanda Sahib,
Nawab.

(2) Bussy took
Jinji.

(3) Muzaffar Jang,
Viceroy of the
Dekhan.

(4) Dupleix, supreme
in the Dekhan.

The French, Muzaffar Jang and Chanda Sahib, defeated and slew Anwaruddin at *Ambur* in 1749. Muhammad Ali, the son of Anwaruddin, fled to Trichinopoly, and Chanda Sahib was proclaimed Nawab of the Karnatic at Arcot. The object of Dupleix was thus realized. Bussy, the distinguished general of Dupleix, took the fortress of Jinji. Nazir Jang was shot by his own followers, and Muzaffar Jang was made Viceroy of the Dekhan. Thus, Dupleix became supreme in the Dekhan, and commanded 10,000 horse, and received the right to coin money for the whole of the Dekhan.

Muzaffar Jang slain.

he was attacked by

Salabat Jang
succeeds.

While Muzaffar Jang was being escorted by Bussy to his capital at Aurangabad, some native forces and slain, pierced by a javellin in the forehead. Then, Bussy appointed Salabat Jang, another son of Nizam-ul-mulk. (See Genealogical Table).

1749.
The English get
Devikottah.

Kingdom of Tanjore; but when the reigning Raja promised to give Devikottah, they changed sides and got the exiled member a pension of Rs. 4000 a year. (Compare how the French obtained Karikal, ten years before.)

Second War in the
Karnatic
(1750--1755).

Dupleix was now supreme in the Dekhan, with the exception of Trichinopoly, Tanjore, Madras and Fort St. David. This supremacy of Dupleix, naturally, alarmed the English. There

was no other alternative left for the English than to take up the cause of the party opposed to the French candidates in this

“Double War of Succession.” Muhammad

First siege of
Trichinopoly.

Ali, the son of Anwaruddin, was besieged at Trichinopoly by Chanda Saib, and he

applied to the English for protection. The English sent troops to Trichinopoly. Arcot was the capital of

Clive exchanges the
pen for the *sword*.

Chanda Saib and he had gone to Trichinopoly, leaving behind a garrison to watch

the fort at Arcot. It was Robert Clive, one of the Company's clerks, that suggested that the best plan for weakening Chanda

Saib at Trichinopoly was to occupy Arcot, for then, Chanda Saib would be obliged to send a portion of his army

back to Arcot. Accordingly, Clive was sent to Arcot. He captured Arcot very easily, and stood a siege there for

Defence of Arcot,
1750.

fifty days. Chanda Saib, as was expected, sent a large detachment of troops to Arcot

Saib's forces and

under his son Raja Saib. Clive drove Raja Saib's forces and defended Arcot very boldly. Clive and

1751.
Battle of Arni.

Morari Row defeated Raja Saib at Arni. The siege of Trichinopoly was raised, and

Muhammad Ali was acknowledged Nawab of the Karnatic. Major Lawrence, Robert Clive and troops from the Rajas of Mysore and Tanjore, went to Trichinopoly.

Chanda Saib surrendered to the Raja of Tanjore who afterwards basely slew him. The French also sur-

1752.

rendered.

Muhammad Ali had promised Trichinopoly to the Raja of

Second siege of
Trichinopoly, 1752.

Mysore, but now refused to give it. Duplex took advantage of this dispute, and be-

Battle of Bahur,
1752.

sieged Trichinopoly. This town was besieged for a second time. Major Lawrence

Clive sailed for
England.

defeated the French at *Bahur*. Clive sailed for England.

In the absence of Clive, the French were determined to get possession of Trichinopoly which was considered to be the key of the Karnatic, because, it was situated at the junction of the routes on all sides, and it commanded the river Kaveri. Dupleix continued the siege of Trichinopoly and intended to retain in his own person the Nawabship of the Karnatic.

Bussy gets Northern
Circars from
Salabat Jang.

Meanwhile, Bussy, having appointed Salabat Jang Nizam of the Dekhan, established himself at Hyderabad. He obtained from the Nizam the Northern Circars which yielded ample revenue for the payment of his troops.

1754.

While the English and the French were fighting in India, the two nations in Europe were friendly. Therefore, when Dupleix claimed to be the Nawab of the Karnatic, the English in India referred the matter to the Home Government. Then, the English Government negotiated with the French Government in Europe. Thereupon, the French Government recalled Dupleix and appointed Vizier *Godeheu* to supersede Dupleix and to treat with Saunders, the Governor of Madras, for peace. Dupleix sailed for France, a ruined and broken-hearted man, and died in abject poverty, on 10th. November, 1764.

Dupleix died
10th. Nov., 1764.

Three days before his death, he wrote, while in France, "I have sacrificed my youth, my fortune, my life, to enrich my nation in Asia. My services are treated as fables, my demand is denounced as ridiculous. I am treated as the vilest of mankind. I am in the most deplorable indigence."

Treaty of
Pondicherry, 1755.

After the arrival of *Godeheu* in India, the treaty of Pondicherry was made, by which Muhammad Ali was recognized as Nawab of the Karnatic, and both sides agreed to give up inter-

ference with Native States. By this treaty Dupleix was ungenerously sacrificed by France.

Dupleix's Policy. Dupleix was the first to form a correct estimate of the power of Europeans compared with the natives of India. It was he who, for the first time, asserted the independence of European Settlements of Indian powers. He was the first to see how easily European discipline might be given to natives under European officers. He was the first to make extensive use of disciplined sepoys, to send an army inland and to see the illusion of the Mogul greatness. He was also the first to use interference in the affairs of the Native States as a means of extending European power.

Such a distinguished person could not have been treated by any wise Government in the way in which he was treated by the French Government.

Dupleix's plan. Dupleix aimed at the expulsion of the British from India and at the establishment of French supremacy at each Native Court, thereby obtaining a large territorial Empire. His plan came to nothing, on account of too much interference of the French Government at home in Indian affairs. (1) The French Government

Why it failed. thought that it should reduce Indian expenditure owing to the bad management of finance at home. (2) The French imagined that trade and conquest were opposed to each other. (3) The methods employed by Dupleix were unsafe, since they depended on the superiority of a few hired troops, on the friendship of native powers and on the personal qualities of the French leaders. (4) Above all, the French were inferior to the English in *sea-power*.

Seven Years' War,
1756.

Seven Years' War between England and France. (See English History). England and France fought for colonial supremacy

in North America.

1756. Clive returned to India as Governor of Fort St. David. The French Government appointed Count de Lally, Governor-General of the French possessions in India. He arrived at Pondicherry in 1758 with a large fleet. He was very patriotic, but hasty. He ruined that Empire which the genius of Dupleix had created. He captured Fort St. David from the English and tried to take Madras. With a view to take Madras, he fell into the folly of recalling Bussy from the Dekhan where he had firmly established French influence and power. Bussy protested, but in vain. His departure from the Northern Circars was followed by a revolt of the Raja of Vizianagaram against Conflans, the successor of Bussy in Northern Circars. The Raja of Vizianagaram applied to Clive at Calcutta for assistance. Clive sent Colonel Forde who drove the French from the Northern Circars.

1759. Battle of Wandivash. Lally besieged Madras, but the arrival of an English fleet compelled him to raise the siege. Colonel Coote defeated the French at Wandivash and took Bussy prisoner. Karikal fell into the hands of the English. Lally surrendered at Pondicherry. The loss of Pondicherry in 1761 was the culminating incident of the downfall of the French power in India. Jinji was also taken. The imprisonment of Bussy after the battle of Wandivash, made Salabat Jang helpless. (Compare Nizam-ul-mulk and Anwaruddin.) Nizam Ali imprisoned Salabat Jang (see Nizam's Genealogical Table), and became the Nizam of the Dekhan.

1763. By the Treaty of Paris, Pondicherry and other places were restored to the French.

The French grew angry at the loss of their Indian posses-

Execution of Lally,
1766.

sions and decided to make Lally a victim to their anger. He was tried and condemned to death by the Parliament of Paris.

He was the last great Indian hero whom France unjustly sacrificed. Labourdonnais and Dupleix had preceded him.

Advantages of the
English over the
French in the
conquest of India.

We must now examine the causes of the success of the English in the struggle between the English and the French. The conquest of Bengal supplied the

English plenty of money by extensive commerce, and Bengal was a firm base of operations, on the *mainland*; the French on the other hand, soon exhausted their treasury, and their only safe base was at Mauritius. The English were very fortunate in finding a commander of military genius and one well-versed in Indian affairs, while the French General was inexperienced in dealing with the Eastern people.

CHAPTER V.

THE ENGLISH IN BENGAL.

In order to take up the narrative of events in Bengal, it is necessary for us to go back a few years.

(1) Period of fighting between the English and the French, (1745-1763).

(2) Period of fighting between the English and the Native Indian powers.

The rise and growth of the English power in India may be divided into two periods: (1) The period of contest among the European nations who began by competing for *commercial advantages* and ended by fighting for *political superiority* in India. The commercial competition lasted throughout the whole of the seven-

teenth century. The struggle with the French lasted from 1745 to 1763, and it laid the foundation of the British dominion in India. (2) The period of contest between the English and

the Native Indian powers for *supremacy all over India*. This was from 1756 to 1806, *i.e.*, half a century.

We have been, hitherto, tracing all the events connected with the first period, and we must now approach the second period. This contest began in 1756, when Clive and Watson sailed from Madras to recover Calcutta from the Nawab of Bengal.

Bengal.

We must now learn something about the province of Bengal, after the death of Aurangazeb. Bengal was a province whose Governor held office during the pleasure of the Mogul Emperor who frequently changed the Governors, lest they should become too powerful; but as the power of the Emperor declined, the Nawab became more independent and paid "little obedience

Murshid Khuli
Khan, Governor of
Bengal, (1700-1725).

Two other Gover-
nors, (1725-1742).

Aliverdi Khan,
(1742-1756).

and less revenue" to Delhi. It was Murshid Khuli Khan who founded a hereditary Governor-Generalship of Bengal, Behar and Orissa, and made Murshidabad his capital. After the death of Murshid, two Governors ruled in succession for nearly seventeen years, one, Murshid's son-in-law, and the other, Murshid's grandson. Aliverdi Khan, an Afghan adventurer, slew Murshid's grandson and became the Nawab himself. He was kind to the English. Aliverdi Khan died and was succeeded by his grandson *Siraj-ud-daulah*. The English were no friends of *Siraj-ud-daulah*. We must now look into the causes of such hostility. (1) *Siraj-ud-daulah* suspected the English of having corresponded with a possible rival against him for the succession. (2) A messenger from *Siraj-ud-daulah* had been abruptly dismissed by the English. (3) The English President, Drake, had erected some new fortifications with a view to put his settle-

Causes of hostility
between the English
and *Siraj-ud-daulah*.

ment into a state of defence against the French ; but the right to fortify their places had not been given to the English in Bengal. Therefore, the Nawab strictly called on the President to demolish the fortifications. Drake answered that the fortifications were simply against the French with whom war was impending. This reply was taken to mean that Siraj-ud-daulah's protection and authority were very lightly regarded by the English. Hence, he at once attacked the English. (4) Siraj-ud-daulah had intended to deprive a Hindu of his wealth ; but when the Hindu sought the protection of the English, Siraj-ud-daulah asked for his surrender ; but the English refused to surrender a person who once placed his hopes of safety in them.

English factories
at this time, in
Bengal, Behar and
Orissa.

In order to understand clearly the struggle between the English and the Nawab, we must know the English factories at this time in Bengal, Behar and Orissa. (1)

Calcutta, where Fort William was situated, (from William III. in whose reign the fort was built). (2) *Kasimbazaar*, two miles south of Murshidabad. (3) *Hugli*. (4) *Balasore*. (5) *Dacca*.

June 1756. Black
Hole Tragedy.

Siraj-ud-daulah captured Kasimbazaar and marched on Calcutta. Many of the English fled in ships down the Hugli, and the rest surrendered ; but those that surrendered were thrown into a prison-room called the Black Hole from which, after a single night's suffering, only twenty-three (22 men and one woman named Mrs. Carey who lived in honor till 1801), out of one hundred and forty-six, came out alive. When the news reached Madras, Clive and Admiral Watson marched off to Bengal and recaptured Calcutta. Thereupon, Siraj-ud-daulah made a treaty with Clive ; but he intrigued with the French. Clive next captured Chandernagore, the French settlement in Bengal.

Clive retakes
Calcutta.

French and English
Presidency towns
are situated very
near each other.

It is important and interesting to notice that there was a French Settlement on each coast corresponding to every English Presidency town. Corresponding to Madras

was Pondicherry, to Bombay was Mahe, and to Calcutta was Chandernagore.

Owing to the unpopularity of Siraj-ud-daulah, a conspiracy was formed against the Nawab by some influential and wealthy men. Mir Jafir, the Commander-in-Chief of the Nawab, was

Conspiracy against
the Nawab.

one of these. Clive also joined the conspirators. Mir Jafir wished to become the Nawab and it was arranged that Clive should make him the Nawab, if he should go over to the side of the English in the middle of the battle. Umachand, a Hindu merchant of Calcutta who knew the whole plot, threatened to reveal the whole plot, unless he was paid a heavy sum of money. Clive promised to satisfy him and wrote a document on a red paper promising the sum of money, and forged the name of Admiral Watson. This

Fate of Umachand.

act of forgery is unworthy of such a distinguished man as Lord Clive. Umachand was at last disappointed, when he was told that the red paper document was not valid and that he was not to receive the promised sum of money. He died of a broken heart.

Battle of Plassey,
23rd June 1757.

In the battle of Plassey, the English defeated Siraj-ud-daulah. His chief officers deserted him in the battle and the Nawab himself fled from the field. Mir Jafir, paymaster of the Nawab's forces and one of the chief conspirators, was recognized as Nawab of Bengal, Behar and Orissa, by the English.

Mir Jafir made
Nawab.

His reward to the
English.

Siraj-ud-daulah was killed by order of Mir Jafir's son. Mir Jafir gave the English East India Company Zemindari rights over a large tract in Bengal known as the

“Twenty-four Parganas.” Mir Jafir was confirmed in his appointment by the Emperor who granted the Jagir of the ‘Twenty-four Parganas’ to Clive.

Importance of the battle of Plassey.	The battle of Plassey was the first battle in which the East India Company’s troops were openly arrayed, not as <i>auxiliaries</i> (as in the case of Dekhan disputed successions), but, as <i>principals</i> , against a considerable native army commanded in person by the ruler of a great province.
--------------------------------------	--

1758. Clive, Governor of British Bengal. Clive sailed for Europe, 1760.	In 1758, Clive was made Governor of British Bengal, and two years later, he sailed for Europe.
---	--

In the absence of Clive, Mir Jafir proved to be a worthless Nawab. He failed to pay off the arrears due to the English and he was, therefore, deposed and his son-in-law, Mir Kasim, was set up, on paying large sums of money to the Company and on paying off the arrears due to the Company. He also gave them Burdwan, Midnapur and Chittagong.

Importance of the year 1761.	The year 1761 is an important date in Indian History. It witnessed the downfall of the Mahratta power in <i>Northern India</i> , at the battle of Panipat. It witnessed the surrender of Pondicherry, and the extinction of French power in <i>Southern India</i> . In Bengal, Mir Jafir was deposed, and his son-in-law, Mir Kasim was made Nawab.
------------------------------	---

Mir Kasim changes capital.	There were certain commercial quarrels between Mir Kasim and the English, and Mir Kasim removed his capital from Murshidabad to Monghir. It must be noted that this change of capital was made with a view to avoid his being under the supervision of the English, Murshidabad being in the vicinity of Calcutta. (Compare this change of capital with that
----------------------------	--

of either of Ghiasuddin Toghlaq Shah or Muhammad Bin Toghlaq Shah.)

Mir Kasim's
quarrel regarding
duties.

The East India Company were allowed to trade without heavy transit duties on all goods passing up and down the Hugli ; but

after the famous battle of Plassey, the European servants of the Company claimed the same privilege. Worse than this, they gave the sanction of their name to Indian agents. Mir Kasim bitterly complained against these abuses which ruined his resources. Vansittart and Warren Hastings advocated the cause of the Nawab. The Nawab, at last, settled the matter by abolishing all inland duties, thus, placing his own subjects, no doubt at a great sacrifice of his revenue, in the same position with the Company's servants. The English complained of this action and there was a war between the English and the

1763.
War between
Mir Kasim
and the English.

Nawab. The English defeated the Nawab at *Gheria* and *Udwanulla*. At the instigation of Mir Kasim, Sumru massacred the English prisoners at Patna. Thereupon, the English stormed Patna, and Mir Kasim fled to Oudh. The Nawab of Oudh and Shah Alam II., the Mogul Emperor, were both defeated by the English at *Buxar*, in 1764. Sir Hector Munro distinguished himself by

Massacre of
Patna.

1764.
Second Battle
of Buxar.

his victory on this occasion. Mir Kasim fled to the north-west where he died in obscurity ; the Nawab of Oudh fled to Rohilkhand, and Shah Alam joined the English.

Its
importance.

Thus, this battle broke up the power of the Nawab of Oudh. In 1765, the English set up Mir Jafir once more, and took Mir Kasim's capital, Monghir. The Nawab of Oudh was once more defeated at *Korah*, and he surrendered to the English. Mir Jafir died in the same year, and an ille-

1765.
Battle of
Korah.
January 1765.
Death of
Mir Jafir.

gitimate son of Mir Jafir was raised to the position of the Nawab.

May 1765. Lord Clive arrived at Calcutta.

We saw already that, in Mogul India, under the Subahdar was a Dewan who collected the provincial revenues which were then transmitted to the imperial treasury at Delhi. Clive now wished to make somewhat similar arrangements. He wished that the East India Company might be the Dewan for Bengal, Behar and Orissa.

Clive met the Mogul Emperor and the Nawab of Oudh at Allahabad. Oudh was restored to the Nawab of Oudh on condition of ceding *Korah* and *Allahabad* instead of the tribute due to the Emperor. The Emperor was glad to accept this arrangement.

East India
Company was
made Dewan.

The East India Company was made Dewan, on promise of (1) payment of an annual tribute of 26 lakhs of rupees, and (2) undertaking the military defence of the country.

Duties as
Dewan.

The Nawab was left in charge of Law, Justice and Police ; the Company collected the revenues, paid the Nawab and his officials their salaries, sent the promised tribute to the Emperor, provided for the defence of the provinces and transferred the remainder to its coffers. The Emperor also granted to the Company the *Northern Circars*. Thus, in Bengal, Behar and Orissa, was set up a dual government, the Company being *Dewan* and Subahdar being the *Nizam*.

Double
Government.

Clive finally sailed
for home, 1767.

Clive returned to England for the *third and last* time.

Clive's Reforms.

Hitherto, the servants of the Company were receiving small salaries ; but they were allowed to trade on their own account and to receive presents

Civil Service, from the Natives. Clive forbade them to trade or to receive presents.

Military Service. The English soldiers were in the habit of receiving, *when on service*, what was called the "Double Bhatta." Clive tried to stop this custom. The officers rebelled and the ringleaders were punished. This extra allowance was given by Mir Jafir, and was continued by Mir Kasim. The Company, being now the paymasters, resolved to abolish it.

Clive's administrative arrangement had been defective. He had recognized Muhammad Reza Khan as Deputy Nawab at Murshidabad, and Raja Shitab Roy as Deputy Nawab at Patna. These were in charge of the administration and collection of revenue. This double government worked very badly. The subordinates who collected the revenue, oppressed the people, and in consequence, revenues began to fail.

Its bad results. Trade diminished, poverty of the people increased and there was famine in Bengal.

A chronological sketch of Lord Clive's career in India :—

Chronological sketch of Clive's career. 1744. He landed at Madras as a clerk in the service of the East India Company.

1747. Siege of Pondicherry. Clive distinguished himself.

1750. He takes Devikottah from the Raja of Tanjore, though the exile was not assisted,

1750. Clive defends Arcot, (native sepoys lived on boiled rice-water).

I } 1751. Battle of Arni.

1752. Clive defeated the French at *Kaveripauk* near Conjeeveram.

1753. He returned home, where he received from the Court of Directors a diamond-hilted sword as a present.

1755. He lands again in India, as Governor of Fort St. David.
- 20th June, 1756. Reaches Fort St. David. (Day of Black-Hole Tragedy).
1757. Battle of Plassey.
1758. Clive made Governor of British Bengal.
1759. Clive sends Colonel Forde to Northern Circars, and Sir Eyre Coote to Wandivash to defeat the French.
1760. Clive sailed for England, where he received from George III. an Irish peerage as Lord Clive Baron Plassey.
- (1760—1764. Vansittart, in the place of Clive).
1765. Clive returned to India. He makes the East India Company the Dewan of Bengal, Behar and Orissa. He reforms the civil and military service. His double-government failed.
1767. He finally left India.

The effects of the conquest of Bengal upon the spread of British power in India.

The possession of Bengal had been specially beneficial to the British for their conquest of India. (1) Bengal and other provinces bordering on the sea were far more defenceless than the inland country ; because, the Mogul imperial power was very weak, the inhabitants of these tracts were less warlike and were ill-governed at this time. (2) The British power, for the first time, struck inland into the heart of the country from *Bengal* and not from Madras or Bombay. Advancing into Bengal was same as entering India “ by its *soft and defenceless* side.” (3) At the head of the Bay of Bengal is the region of the delta pierced by the navigable channels, while not a single harbour for large ships is to be found from the Southern Cape northward along the East Coast, and the estuaries of rivers are also not accessible to large ships. (4) The rivers afford excellent harbourage only on this section of the sea-coast of India. (5) In Bengal we have *rich* allu-

vial plains, and a very *industrious* and *unwarlike* people who produce much and can live on little.

(6) In the eighteenth century, Bengal was the richest of all the Indian provinces. Hence, the English had control over a heavy purse.

After the conquest of Bengal, the true centre of Government was changed to Bengal from the Dekhan.

Fraser's summary of the benefits of the conquest of Bengal. Fraser summarises the benefits of the conquest of Bengal thus, "Robert Clive had the sea-power of England to support him. With unerring insight, he had turned from the South, where no advance into the heart of India was possible, and firmly established the British power in the rich alluvial tracts of Bengal, amid a tame and law-abiding populace, where the Company might in peace consolidate its strength, make sure its foothold, and slowly, at its own chosen time, advance further and further, each step being secured before the next was attempted, until finally their power had crept all over the land up the Ganges to Benares, further on to the Himalayas, gaining wealth, power and strength, to raise armies, to subdue the South and West, to plant the British standard by the Indus, sweep in the garnered wealth of Oudh, and then hand over the dominions and trade which its servants had won and fostered, to the safe keeping of the Queen Empress."

Robert Clive was able to settle the British dominion on a sure foundation, (1) by accepting for the Company, the Dewani readily granted by the Emperor on condition of paying to him 26 lakhs of rupees annually and giving him Korah and Allahabad. By this, the Company became responsible administrators, and the disputes between the Nawab of Bengal and the authority of the Company were also at an end, (2) by

Clive's policy examined.

concluding a treaty with the Nawab of Oudh. From the results of the battles of Buxar and Korah, it is evident that the province of Oudh was brought under the control of the British. It was left to the Company to choose between annexing it, or, reinstating the Nawab to the interest of the British. Lord Clive adopted the latter alternative. He decided to strengthen Oudh as a friendly state lying between Bengal and Northern India. Clive wished that Oudh should be useful to prevent the collision of foreign states with British territory in Bengal. (A buffer is an apparatus with powerful springs attached to railway carriages to prevent injury from forcible contact). Just as a buffer would prevent a violent collision of two railway vans, Oudh would prevent the violent attacks of Foreign States on British territory. Thus, Oudh was a "Buffer State."

Thus, the policy of Clive made the English territory safe in Hindustan. He was the first great architect of the British Empire in India. When he came to India in 1744, he found his countrymen as humble traders possessing insignificant villages in Bombay, Madras and Calcutta. When he left India 23 years after, the English had suppressed the power of the French, and had become supreme in the Karnatic. They were the virtual masters of the Northern Circars, Bengal and Behar, and the Emperor of India was a tool in their hands.

CHAPTER VI.

HYDER ALI AND THE MAHRATTAS.

Hitherto, we have been noticing the several steps taken by the English to conquer Bengal. We found that the British owned a *rich inland* province without any fear of attack by sea, and the land frontier was well sheltered by Oudh. But on the south-east coast, the situation of the English, though

the French power was crippled, was still unsafe. Here, the British territory ran along the sea-coast, and was covered landward by the Karnatic, where the Nawab was not very trustworthy. Thus, we see that Bengal was a better base of operations than Madras for the conquest of India.

In the south, besides the *Nizam* of Hyderabad who was also wavering, there were two warlike neighbours, *Hyder Ali* and *the Mahrattas*. A glance at the map will show that the three powers formed a triangle as it were.

Hyder Ali was born to a petty soldier in 1702. He was as illiterate, yet, as skilful as Ala-uddin Khilji, or, Ranjit Singh of the Panjab, or, even Sivaji of Maharashtra. He first appears as a young cavalry officer in Mysore. He took part in the famous siege of Trichinopoly. He secured a great treasure at the sack of Bednur, and soon made himself master of Mysore. He gave a French training to his troops. He pushed his conquests from Mysore westward. The superior courage of Hyder began to alarm his neighbours. The Mahrattas and the Nizam formed an alliance against Hyder. Karnatic was also threatened by Hyder; the British, in their own interests, were bound to oppose Hyder Ali who was at this time intriguing with the French. Hence, a triple alliance was formed between the English, the Nizam and the Mahrattas, against the ruler of Mysore.

The war that took place between them, is known as the *First Mysore War*.
 First Mysore War.
 Hyder bought off the Mahrattas, and the Nizam also came over to the side of Hyder. Thus, the English were left to fight single-handed. Hyder was defeated by Colonel Smith at Changama and Trinomalai, in 1767. The

1767. Battles of Changama and Trinomalai.
 Nizam, seeing the English victorious, made peace with them by confirming the cession of Northern Circars made

Peace with the
Nizam.

two years ago. The English acquired the whole country between Dindigul, Palghat and Vaniambadi. They captured Mangalore

and Onore. Hyder soon recovered most of the lost possessions. He, then, marched to Madras where the Governor was

Treaty of Madras,
1769.

panic-stricken and came to terms with Hyder. Both sides were permitted to hold the possessions they had possessed before

the war, and they mutually agreed to assist each other in all *defensive* wars.

Hyder, next, turned his attention to the Mahrattas. The latter entered Hyder's kingdom and were plundering and laying waste his territory. The English refused to assist Hyder on this occasion. Thus, they broke the treaty of Madras. This

Breach of the
Treaty.

was one of the causes of the Second Mysore War. The Mahrattas were again bought off by the payment of 15 lakhs of rupees.

In the north-west, Ahmad Shah Durani invaded the Panjab in 1748, and appointed an Afghan Vizier there. Ten years later, the Mahrattas entered the Panjab and set up a Mahratta Governor in the place of the Afghan Vizier. This provoked

Third Battle of
Panipat, 1761.

Ahmad Shah Durani who severely defeated the Mahrattas at Panipat in 1761 ; and in 1771, the Mogul Emperor Shah Alam II. fell

under the Mahratta control.

CHAPTER VII.

WARREN HASTINGS.

We already saw the evil consequences of the defective system of administration (Double Government) established by Lord Clive in Bengal, in 1767. The English garrisoned the country and in no way interfered with the civil administration

of the country. When the people were oppressed by the native officials who rarely remitted the sum collected to the Company's coffers, people were poverty-stricken and famine and pestilence visited Bengal. The revenues of the East India Company went down. So long as the Company was managing

Circumstances
that led to the
passing of the
Regulating Act, in
1773

a few factories in India, the British Parliament did not interfere with the doings of the Company; but when large provinces were acquired for the Company by Lord Clive,

and when famine visited the rich province of Bengal, the revenues of the East India Company fell, and it had become necessary to apply to the English Parliament for a grant of money. Parliament consented to grant the sum of money required, on condition that the affairs of the Company should be brought under the supervision of the English Parliament. Parliament thus began to *regulate* the affairs of the Company. Hence, the Regulating Act was passed during the premiership of Lord North in 1773, and it changed the constitution of the Company.

The changes effected by the Act were:—(1) Changes effected by the Act. The territories and revenues acquired by the Company were to be retained by them for the term of their charter. (2) By this Act, the British Parliament acquired a definite control over the whole affairs of the Company. (3) The number of the Court of Directors was reduced by raising the money qualifications for Directorship. (4) A Governor-General and a Council of four members were established in India, for Bengal (it must be remembered that these were the first appointments that were made by Parliament) with a general authority over the three Presidencies; a majority of votes in the Council settled all disputed questions. (5) A Supreme Court of Justice, consisting of a Chief Justice and three other judges, with a very *ill-defined jurisdiction*, was set up side by side with the Governor-General and Council in Calcutta. The Court of Justice was set up with

the object of putting down oppression. It was independent of the Governor-General.

Act in India, 1774. Lord North's Regulating Act was enforced in India, in 1774. Warren Hastings was made Governor-General of India.

Early career of Hastings. He was born in 1732. He had come out for the first time to Calcutta in 1750, and was employed in the Company's factories.

1757-1763. He acted as Resident at Murshidabad, and was, then, a member of the Calcutta Council, and favoured Mir Kasim in his just protests.

In 1764, he returned to England. Five years later, he came back to India as member of Council at Madras. In 1772, he was appointed Governor of Bengal.

Defects of the changes made by the Act. The arrangements made in accordance with the Regulating Act were still unsatisfactory ; because, (1) the Governor-General was wholly dependent upon the votes of his Council, although he was allowed a casting vote. (2) The Supreme Court of Justice and the Governor-General and Council, were opposed to each other ; because. the Governor-General and Council controlled the revenue matters, and the Supreme Court of Justice claimed the right to judge whether the management was conducted well or ill. The British Parliament was the only proper umpire to settle their disputes and fix their proper spheres ; but it was at a distance of six months' voyage from India. There was no other law-making body nearer than England.

Administration of Warren Hastings, 1772-1785. The Administration of Warren Hastings as Governor-General, may be divided into four periods, (1) His Reforms, internal and

external, (2) His relations with Francis, (3) His Saving India, and (4) His preparations for going home.

I. Reforms,
(1) Internal.

1772-1774.

(a) An enquiry was made into the Administrations of the Deputy Nawabs, Muhammad Reza Khan and Shitab Roy,

and they were acquitted.

(b) Lands were leased out to the Zemindars for a period of five years.

(c) The chief revenue officers were removed from Murshidabad to Calcutta and were placed under a Board of Revenue consisting of English officials. The actual collection of revenue was placed in the hands of well paid European Collectors who, since then, have been the heads of districts.

(d) The High Court was removed from Murshidabad to Calcutta. Two Superior Civil and Criminal Courts were established at Calcutta with dependent courts in each district. Codes of Hindu and Muhammadan Law were drawn up. He also abolished the ancient custom of the judges receiving one-fourth of the amount in dispute in Civil cases.

(e) He reformed the Police, and bands of dacoits were put down.

(f) He improved the Company's trade by setting up salt agencies and by making opium a government monopoly.

(2) External. Warren Hastings stopped the tribute of

26 lakhs of rupees to the Emperor, as he was in the hands of the Mahrattas. The pension given to the Nawab of Murshidabad was reduced to one-half. He sold Korah and Allahabad, which had been granted to the Emperor by Clive in 1765, to the Nawab of Oudh for 50 lakhs of rupees, on the ground that the Emperor was a pensioner, and that the occupation of these districts by the Mahrattas would have been fatal to Bengal and Oudh. (See Map).

Next, we have to consider the circumstances that led Warren Hastings to interfere in the affairs of the Rohillas.

The Rohillas and the Mahrattas were opposed to each other, for two reasons:—(1)

They were of different religions—the Rohillas being Pathan warriors, and the Mahrattas, Hindu warriors. (2) The Rohillas had stood by, and allowed the Afghans to slaughter the Mahrattas at Panipat, in 1761.

With the intention of plundering and conquering Oudh, the Mahrattas first wanted to enter and lay waste the Rohilla country. The ruler of Rohilkhand, at that time, was Hafiz Rehmet Khan. With a view to ward off the Mahrattas, he entered into a treaty with the Nawab of Oudh who was his neighbour. The Nawab of Oudh agreed to help him on condition of receiving 40 lakhs of rupees; because, if the Nawab should be indifferent to the request of the Rohillas, the Mahrattas might, after plundering Rohilkhand, enter Oudh. (See Map.)

The Mahrattas having heard of the death, at Poona, of their Peishwa, Madu Rao, went home without attacking Rohilkhand. All the same, Shuja-ud-daulah, the Nawab of Oudh, was pertinacious in his demand for the promised sum of 40 lakhs of rupees. When the Rohillas refused to give anything, since no war actually took place, Shuja-ud-daulah applied to his neighbours, the British, for help, promising them 40 lakhs of rupees, besides the expenses of war with the Rohillas. Hastings agreed to send a brigade. Hence, there was war. Colonel

Champion with his brigade, accompanied

Events.

1774. Battle of
Katra.

Results.

by the Nawab and his army, defeated the Rohillas at *Katra*. The victory was won by the English, and the Nawab's soldiers plundered the country. The power of the Rohillas was broken for ever. The family

of the Rohilla leader still flourishes as the Nawabs of Rampur. Champion's brigade received a bonus of $10\frac{1}{2}$ lakhs from the Nawab. Rohilkhand was annexed to Oudh. This act Hastings is an imitation of the policy of Lord Clive. This annexation increased the safety of British Bengal; because, Oudh became larger by this annexation. (See Map.)

II. His relations with Francis (1774-1780.) According to the Regulating Act, Warren Hastings was to be assisted by a council of four members. He had no more power than his Councillors, three of whom (Mr. Francis, General Clavering and Colonel Monson), were opposed to him. His power was thereby very much weakened. His only friendly Councillor was Mr. Barwell.

1774. The Council condemned the Rohilla War. In 1775, Shuja-ud-daulah died and was succeeded by his son, Asaf-ud-daulah, with whom the Council made a treaty, the terms of which were (1) that he should surrender to the Company the Revenues of Benares, (2) that he should pay to the Company Rs. 50,000 per mensem, the subsidy which his father had consented to pay for the English troops stationed in Oudh, (3) that he should pay to the English the debts due by his father, (4) that he should pay his father's widow all the two crores of rupees left by his father in the treasury.

Hastings was against such hard terms, but he could do nothing.

Some of the enemies of Hastings began to take advantage of the weakness of his power by bringing charges against him. If Hastings and the Councillors were united and friendly, and even if Hastings were guilty, no one could dare to bring charges against him. As a matter of experience, we find that in a family of five brothers, if all of them are friendly and

united, and even if any one of them is guilty of something, no one will dare to bring charges against him ; but if any one of them is opposed to the rest, and even if he is not guilty of anything, persons will take advantage of this state of affairs, and frame imaginary charges against the helpless brother, and bring them to the notice of the other brothers whose favor they thereby seek to gain.

Among the several enemies of Hastings was Nandkumar who reported to the Court of Directors about the appropriation of revenue by Reza Khan and Shitab Roy in Bengal and Behar. Although they were innocent, they were tried, but acquitted. Nandkumar was *for a time* the favourite of the Court of Directors.

June 1775.
Execution of Nand-
kumar for forgery.

5th. August.

therein. This was discovered. He was tried and hanged on the 5th. August, 1775.

Was the punishment
just ?

Nandkumar forged a bond purporting to be the acknowledgment of a debt due by a Hindu Banker, on whose death in 1769, he had presented the forged bond, and had been paid the sum of money mentioned therein. This was discovered. He was tried and hanged on the 5th. August, 1775.

Capital punishment for forgery was unknown in India. The sentence was based not on Indian Law, but on English Law.

Apart from this, the Court of Directors pointed out the injustice to the English minister a few years later in the following words :—" If it were legal to try to convict and execute Nandkumar for *forgery* on the statute of George III, it must, as we conceive, be equally legal to try, convict and punish the Subahdar of Bengal and all his court for *Bigamy* upon the statute of James I."

September 1776.
Monson died.
Clavering died,
1777.

Monson died. This strengthened the power of Hastings who was in a position to make use of his casting vote successfully. The next year, Clavering died.

Duel with Francis, 1780. Francis fought a duel with Hastings. He was wounded and he went home.

Policy of Hastings. He wished to ensure the safety of British India by giving help to every native prince who sought British aid. He aided with a contingent of troops or sepoys in return for a sufficient annual subsidy. His policy was a foreshadowing of the system of subsidiary alliances.

III. His Saving India (1774-1783.) Hastings saved British India, (1) in Northern and Central India, and (2) in Southern India.

(1) *Northern and Central India.*

First Mahratta War, 1779-1782. In 1774, there was a disputed succession in the Mahratta country.

(1) Balaji Viswanath.

(2) Baji Rao.

(3) Balaji Baji Rao.

(6) Ragunatha Rao.

Viswas Rao. (4) Madu Rao. (5) Narayana Rao. (murdered.)

(8) Baji Rao II, (deposed.)

Nana Saib.

(7) *Madu Rao Narayana.*

(supported by the able minister Nana Farnavis.)

Cause. It would be clear from the annexed Genealogical table, that Narayana Rao, the

fifth Peishwa, was murdered at the instigation of his uncle, Ragunatha Rao. The widow of Narayana Rao gave birth to a boy who was the rightful heir. He was supported by Nana Farnavis. Ragunatha Rao claimed to be the Peishwa. Thus, the Mahrattas were divided into two factions, —one favouring Ragunatha Rao, and the other, the posthumous son of the fifth Peishwa.

Under these circumstances, Ragunatha Rao applied to the English at Bombay for help, promising *Salsette* (close to Bombay) and the port of *Bassein*. The Bombay Government, accordingly, began to instal Ragunatha Rao as the Peishwa. This is known as the *Treaty of Surat*, in 1775; but, this treaty was made by the Bombay Government without the consent of Hastings. Therefore, he condemned the treaty; and a fresh treaty was made by the Calcutta Government, by which the English gave up the cause of Ragunatha Rao, but retained Salsette and Bassein. When these two treaties were brought to the notice of the Court of Directors, they approved of the *Treaty of Surat* and allowed the war to be continued in favour of Ragunatha Rao against the Poona Government. A battle was fought at *Arras*, in which the Bombay army was compelled to retreat; and the English Commanders were obliged to enter into the *Convention of Wargam*, by which they agreed to give back the territories they had recently taken. This Convention was strongly condemned, both in India and in England. The commanders who were the authors of this convention, were dismissed, and the convention itself was cancelled. It was decided to continue the war. Hastings, accordingly, sent *General Goddard* from Bengal. He took Ahmadabad and Bassein; but failed to take Poona. Captain Popham took Gwalior.

1781. Sindia was defeated by Carnac. The war was terminated by the *Treaty of Salbai* in 1782, by which, (1) The infant, Madu Rao, was recognized as Peishwa, and the able

1775.
Treaty of Surat
(by Bombay
Government.)

1776.
Treaty of Purandhar.
(by Hastings.)

Events.
1779 Battle of Arras.

Convention of
Wargam.

Convention
cancelled.

1780.

1781.

1782, Treaty of
Salbai.

Nana Farnavis with his Council of Regency who had conducted the war, was recognised. (2) Ragunatha Rao was allowed a monthly pension of Rs. 25,000. (3) Salsette and Broach were retained by the English, while the other conquests were restored to the Mahrattas. (4) The Mahrattas were to hold no inter-

course with other Europeans. By this treaty, the influence of the English was established by Hastings across the whole of India from Calcutta to Bombay.

(2) *Southern India.*

Hyder Ali and the

English.
Second Mysore War,
1780-1784.

Causes. (1) In the Dekhan, Hyder Ali was trying to attack the English who had been indifferent to the provisions of the treaty of Madras. When the Mahrattas attacked Hyder, he applied to the English for help, according to the treaty of Madras in 1769. The English refused to assist him, and Hyder was very angry to see that the English were not true to their promise. He was only waiting for an opportunity to wage war against the English.

(2) In 1778, there was war between England and France. (See English History). The

English captured Pondicherry on the East and wished to take Mahe on the West Coast; but, Hyder Ali declared that the French Settlement, Mahe, lay within his dominions, and that, therefore, he would defend it. Nevertheless, the English took Mahe. Hence, there was war.

Events.

1780.
First battle of
Pollilore.

Colonel Baillie was on his way to meet Sir Hector Munro, and to jointly attack Hyder; but Hyder came between them and defeated Baillie at *Pollilore*, thus, preventing their union. In this battle, the English lost not less than 700 European soldiers. Hyder next attacked Arcot and Wandivash. Hastings sent troops from

Calcutta under Sir Eyre Coote who raised the siege of Wandivash, and marched towards Pondicherry. Coote defeated Hyder at *Porto Novo*. In this battle, Hyder lost nearly 10,000 men, and was nearly captured himself. Coote continued his pursuit and defeated Hyder at *Pollilore*. Hyder had gone there to fight on the superstitious belief that it was once the place of his victory.

1781.
Battle of Porto Novo.
Second battle of Pollilore.
Battle of Sholingar.

Coote again defeated Hyder at Sholingar; but he did not take the guns of Hyder. Hyder's son, Tippu, compelled Colonel Braithwaite to surrender near the Coleroon.

Meanwhile, Hastings skilfully made a treaty with the Mahrattas (Treaty of Salbai), and thus drew them away from the side of Hyder. Hyder was now assisted by the French. Both Hyder and the French were defeated at *Arni* by Coote.

1782.
Battle of Arni.

In October 1782, Sir Eyre Coote left for Calcutta, his health having failed. He died at Madras in 1783.

1783.
Death of Coote.

In December 1782, Hyder died, having instructed his son Tippu to make peace; but Tippu prosecuted the war on the Western Coast.

December 1782.
Death of Hyder.

The war between the English and the French in India was renewed once more. France sent out a powerful squadron under *Suffren*, the greatest of the French admirals. Bussy also arrived from France. When everything was ready, a peace was fortunately concluded, which averted war.

1783.
Peace of Versailles.

The French in the service of Tippu were at once recalled. Tippu captured Bednore and Mangalore.

1784.
Peace of Mangalore.

In 1784, Peace of Mangalore was made, by which both parties retained their former possessions.

Chronological list of
the achievements of
Sir Eyre Coote.

[1757. Coote was a Champion of Clive at Plassey.

1759. He overthrew the French power by his victory at Wandivash.

1761. He took Pondicherry. This crippled the French power in India.

1781. He crushed Hyder at Porto Novo, Sholingar and Arni.

1783. He died.]

We have seen how dangerous the union of the Mahrattas, Hyder, the Nizam and the French, had proved to the English power in India. Had it not been for the energy of Hastings, this great crisis could not have been met by the English. The success of the English was due to the skill of Hastings in raising *troops*, in raising the *money* to pay these troops, in cleverly winning over to his side dangerous enemies (compare Treaty of Salbai, at a time when Hyder was fighting with the English), in placing at the head of his armies competent men, above all, in maintaining in the English in India, in the most hopeless situation, a hopeful and brave spirit. He very carefully watched every part of British Dominion in

How Hastings
saved India.

India. He accomplished his work most successfully. He saved Bombay, he held the Mahrattas in check, he reconciled Sindia, he made the Nizam an ally of the English, and he supported the Madras Government in its weakness. Thus, he saved English rule in India, at a time of great peril. Hence, he has been called "*The Saviour of India.*"

Meanwhile, Hastings had to attend to other matters. (1) In 1778, he called upon Chait Singh, the Zemindar of Benares, to furnish, during the war, an annual sum of five lakhs of rupees. In 1780, Chait Singh was asked to supply 2,000 horse, which he refused. Hastings fined him 50 lakhs of rupees. Thereupon, Chait Singh sought the protection of the Begums of Oudh. In 1781, Chait Singh was arrested at Benares; but, the city rose and massacred some of the sepoys. The rebellion was put down. A nephew of Chait Singh was put in his place.

(2) After the death of Shujaudaulah, the Nawab of Oudh, his treasure was supposed to be *State Treasure* by his son Asafuddaulah, and *Private Property* by his mother and grandmother who were known as the Begums of Oudh. Hastings signed a treaty at Chunar with Asafuddaulah, compelling him to take back the treasure from the Begums, because the Begums, as we have seen, gave protection to Chait Singh. Another reason for this policy of Hastings was that he, thereby, wished to enable the Nawab of Oudh to pay the arrears due by him to the English Government. The Nawab, at last, took the treasure from the Begums and gave the 26 lakhs of rupees to the Company.

We saw how unpleasant were the relations between Hastings and his Council. At home, the Directors were displeased with his conduct. William Pitt became prime-minister in 1783, and this made his position more hopeful. The Prime-Minister introduced a Bill which is known after him by the name of Pitt's Bill. (1) It maintained the Company and gave the entire civil, military and revenue affairs of the Company to a Board of Control for management. This Board was composed

(1) His dealings
with
Chait Singh.

IV. Preparing for
Home,
(1783-1785.)

Pitt's India Bill,
1784.

of six Commissioners appointed by the King. Thus, the Directors and Proprietors of the Company surrendered their power to govern India to the *English Nation* and the *English Government*; and the President of the Board of Control was really the *Secretary of State* for India. (2) Without the consent of the Court of Directors, no alliances were to be formed with Native States, nor was any *offensive* war to be entered on. (3) This Bill created, as the Government in India, a Governor-General and a Council of *three* other members, with authority over Bombay, Madras and Bengal. The three Councillors should be one Commander-in-Chief and two Bengal Civilians. Similar Councils were set up at Madras and Bombay. (4) There should be no money transactions between the Native Princes and the servants of the Company. (5) The appointments of higher officials, such as the Governor-General, etc., were subject to the veto of the King.

1st. February 1785. Hastings resigned his office and went home. Some time after his return to England, he was impeached through the influence of Burke and Francis for his conduct towards Chait Singh and the Begums of Oudh, and for corruption and extravagant expenditure. The trial went on for seven years. At last, he was acquitted. Hastings declared his own vindication and his accuser's condemnation in the following words, "I gave you all, and you have rewarded me with confiscation, disgrace and a life of impeachment."

Hastings died 1818. He lived a private life to a very old age at Daylesford and died in 1818.

Career of Mahadaji Sindia. The most distinguished Mahratta Chief who was a contemporary of Hastings and who was very influential, was Mahadaji Sindia. He distinguished himself, for the first time, in the Dekhan wars (1750-1760). He lost his legitimate brothers in

the third battle of Panipat, in 1761; and himself became the head of his family and master of Gwalior. When Ahmad Shah Durani invaded and conquered the Panjab, he appointed Najibuddaulah, the Afghan viceroy, at Delhi. His son was Zabita Khan whom Mahadaji Sindia drove out of Delhi; and by asking the Mogul Emperor to reside at Delhi, he became practically the minister of the Emperor. About the year 1783, he employed the French Commander, Boigne, who gave European training to Sindia's troops. The following year, he came to Delhi and secured the appointment of the Peishwa as the vicegerent of the Empire, and of himself as Deputy to the Peishwa. The provinces of Delhi and Agra were given to him. In 1785, his attempt to reduce the Rajputs failed. In his absence, Gulam Khadir, the son of Zabita Khan, took Delhi and Agra and became prime-minister to the Emperor; but when Sindia attacked him, he blinded the Emperor; Sindia and Holkar killed Gulam Khadir at Meerut. Shah Alam was once more made Emperor.

At this time, the Sikhs were growing more and more powerful; and one good result of this was that no immigration or invasion of the moslems from the North-west was possible.

By the year 1790, Sindia became supreme in Hindustan. At Poona, his rival was Nana Farnavis. In 1794, Sindia died at Poona, supposed to have been murdered at the instigation of his rival. He wished to make himself supreme both at Delhi and at the Peishwa's Court. He desired that he should be friendly to the English. For example, he helped the English against Tippu.

Effects of his employing European officers.	His employment of European officers and his giving European training to his troops, no doubt, made him very powerful against the <i>natives</i> ; but against the <i>English</i> , a fight was rendered more disastrous than formerly. Hitherto, a defeat of
---	--

the Mahratta army was followed by its scattering and disappearance ; but from this time onwards, it meant the total destruction of the army. Hence, it has been considered, from the Mahratta point of view, that Sindia made a sad mistake in adopting European organization.

CHAPTER VIII.

LORD CORNWALLIS, (1786-1793).

Cornwallis's previous career.

On the departure of Hastings, Sir John Macpherson acted as Governor-General, from 1785 to 1786. He was succeeded by Lord Cornwallis as Governor-General and Commander-in-Chief. Lord Cornwallis was a nobleman of rank and of high character. He was, therefore, chosen to control the Government of India. He was the founder of all sound Indian administration. He was the first Governor-General under the system introduced by Pitt's India Bill of 1784. He had fought skilfully, though not successfully, against the Americans in the War of Independence, and thereby gained considerable military experience. Before he consented to serve as Governor-General, he got a Bill passed in 1786, by which the Governor-General was authorized to override, or, in extraordinary cases, to act without obtaining the council's advice. The reason of this precautionary measure of Cornwallis was that he wished to safeguard himself against the difficulties of Hastings. Warren Hastings had been a servant of the Company, while Cornwallis was the first of the Parliamentary Governors-General.

Cornwallis advocated, at first, the policy of avoiding annexations and of not interfering with Native States. He was, however, compelled to abandon this policy, when his attention was drawn to the state of affairs in *Mysore*.

I. Third Mysore War.
(1790-1792.)

Tippu was trying to overthrow the British power in India by intriguing with the French. He sent ambassadors to France and Constantinople, and they were favourably received. Having been encouraged by this favorable reception, he took the title of Sultan. He wished to attack the Cause. Nayars of Malabar who had taken refuge in Travancore. The Raja of Travancore was an ally of the English. When Tippu attacked Travancore, the English, the Mahrattas and the Nizam formed an alliance against Tippu.

Campaign. The English under General Meadows, the Governor of Madras, were somewhat successful.

1791. Lord Cornwallis himself took the command and captured Bangalore; but he was forced to retreat before Seringapatam.

Cornwallis, after making better preparations for the attack, besieged Seringapatam.

Conclusion The war was brought to an end by the *Peace of Seringapatam*, by which (1) Tippu surrendered one-half of his dominions to be equally divided among the English, the Nizam and the Mahrattas, although the last two powers helped the English but little. (2) Tippu was to pay three crores and thirty lakhs of rupees for the expenses of the war. (3) All the prisoners taken by Tippu should be set free. (4) Tippu's two eldest sons should be given to the English as hostages till the terms of the peace were fulfilled. Coorg was given back to its hereditary chief, and Travancore was saved. The English acquired Baramahal on the East, Dindigul on the South, and a large strip of land on the Malabar coast.

18th. March 1792,
Peace of
Seringapatam.

II. 1793. The
Permanent Revenue
Settlement.

In 1772, when the East India Company was the Collector of Revenue, the ryots paid a fixed share of the produce to the Zemindar either in coin or in kind ; while under the rule of the Moguls, the Zemindars paid nine-tenths of the revenue to the Emperor and the balance went to the Zemindar. The Zemindars, also, possessed the power of levying local cesses.

Warren Hastings leased out the *right* to collect the land revenues for five years and ten years to Zemindars. He made the clerks of the Company Collectors of the Government share of the revenue.

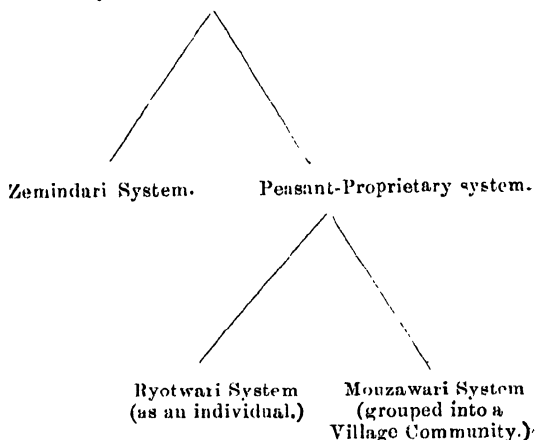
When the East India Company became Sovereign in different parts of India, it found that it had inherited from the Moslem rulers the right to levy Land Tax ; and it had to determine who were to be regarded as the owners of the land—of course, the *State* is the supreme land owner in India. At first, the servants and officers of the Company treated the Zemindars as the landowners. These Zemindars were really the *Tax-Collectors* of the Muhammadan Government. Sometimes, they were Hindu Chiefs, or men having some influence ; but by the settlement of 1793, the Zemindars in Bengal became landowners—the lands being secured to them in *perpetuity*, on condition of their paying an annual fixed rent to the Government.

It must be remembered that, in all systems of Indian Land-Tenure, the *State* is the supreme landowner.

According to the Mouzawari system which prevails in the North-West Provinces and the Panjab, the whole village is responsible for land revenue. Though a headman, commonly called a *Lumbardar*, is appointed for revenue purposes, the village is a kind of small Republic, the members of which are, jointly and severally, responsible for the land-tax ; the tax is fixed for a period of *thirty* years.

There are altogether three typical systems of land-tenure in India—the *Zemindari system* of which we have just now learnt something, the *Mouzawari system* and the *Ryotwari system*.

Systems of Indian Land-Tenure.



Ryotwari system.

The Ryotwari system prevails in Madras and Bombay, and is generally associated with the name of Sir Thomas Munroe. Its chief peculiarity is that Government deals *directly* with the cultivator without any middleman such as a Zemindar or a Village Community. In the Zemindari system and in the Mouzawari system, Government recognizes the right of the landlord to own lands, and holds him responsible for the land-tax, so long as the settlement continues. The landlord is bound to the land, and cannot free himself from the responsibility of paying the land revenue by giving up his right to the land; but under the Ryotwari system, there is no such contract between the landholder and the Government. The landlord can, *at any time*, give up the whole, or a part, of his holding, and cease to be liable for the revenue. He cannot have the land tax levied on his holding *raised* during the period of settlement. In short, the land-tax is

assessed upon the *land*, and whoever that occupies the land has to pay it. Each ryot is assessed, *individually*, for each field he holds. A similar system prevails in Assam and Burma.

Advantages of Permanent Settlement, A permanent settlement assures the land-owner that the land will not be taken away from him at any time, and consequently, the land improves by the enthusiastic efforts of the land owner to raise as much produce as possible; but, the benefit is enjoyed by the Zemindars and not by the Government.

Advantage of a Temporary Settlement, A temporary settlement is, also, not without its advantage. It enables the country, *as a whole*, to share in the increase of revenue resulting from settled or peaceful Government or other cause. The *whole people* enjoy the benefit, since the Government spends money for the welfare of the people.

Which is the best System? The best system is a temporary system for a long period without frequent changes.

Name of system.	Period of settlement.	Nature.	Where prevails.
MOUZAWARI ...	30 years ...	Village is the unit of land administration.	North-West Provinces and the Panjab.
ZEMINDARI ...	For ever ...	Zemindar responsible for revenue.	Bengal, Behar, Benares and part of Madras.
RYOTWARI ...	At any time that Government likes.	Tax assessed upon land, and not occupier. Government deals directly with cultivator.	Madras and Bombay.

Lord Cornwallis, at first, introduced the settlement for ten years; but, in 1793, made it permanent in Bengal.

Main features of the Permanent Settlement.	By the Zemindari system, the Zemindars were recognised as the landed proprietors. They were not allowed to exact transit and other duties. Government reserved the power of making laws for the protection of the ryots. The Zemindars could not turn out their tenants without proper cause. The ryots could not transfer their holdings without their Zemindar's consent. If the Zemindar failed to pay the share of the Government, a sufficient part of his estate was to be sold. Every Zemindar was bound to provide means for carrying on the postal service.
--	--

Results of the Settlement.	The Zemindars acquired great wealth, power and privilege; but the object with which the scheme was made, was the improvement of agriculture; but this was not gained, because, the Zemindars did not spend their capital on their estates. The actual increase of revenue under a settled administration was lost to the <i>Government</i> .
----------------------------	--

III Administrative Reforms.	Next, we have to consider the administrative reforms of Cornwallis.
-----------------------------	---

(1) *Revenue*.—Under the system introduced by Hastings, the District Collector performed both revenue and judicial work. Cornwallis disapproved of this system and separated the Collector and the Judge. The Revenue Collectors were paid fixed salaries and were placed under a Board of Revenue.

(2) *Jurisdiction*.—English Judges assisted by natives went on circuit for the speedy trial of Criminal cases. Civil Courts were also established composed of Circuit Judges.

(3) *Law*.—Muhammadan Law was revised.

1793. Lord Cornwallis was the practical founder
 Cornwallis left of the *Civil Service*. He left India in 1793,
 India. leaving behind him the reputation of a
 "Benevolent, just and high-souled ruler, and a general of
 consummate abilities."

CHAPTER IX.

SIR JOHN SHORE, (1793-1798.)

Sir John Shore strictly carried out the *Non-intervention* policy, by which he carefully avoided all interference with the Native States of India.

1795. The Nizam of Hyderabad applied to the
 Battle of Kurdla. English for help against the Mahrattas; but
 the help was refused. The Nizam was
 defeated by the Mahrattas at *Kurdla*. At this time, the Mahrattas were very powerful; but the young Peishwa, Madhu Rao Narayana, committed suicide, weary of his dependence on his ministers.

Baji Rao II., the son of Ragunatha Rao (see Genealogical Table), was made Peishwa. Daulat Rao Sindia, the son of Mahadaji Sindia, seized Nana Farnavis.

1795. Muhammad Ali, the Nawab of the Kar-
 Muhammad natic, died in 1795 and was succeeded by
 Ali died. his son Omdutulumra. (See Genealogical Table). Two years later, Asafuddoulah, the Nawab of Oudh, died. He was succeeded
 1797. by Vizier Ali who was of doubtful birth.
 Nawab of Oudh Shore, in this instance, resolved to inter-
 died. fere, deposed him and set up Sadat Ali,
 a brother of Asafuddoulah, in his place. Sadat Ali made a subsidiary alliance with the English.

March, 1798. Shore left India, having been raised to
 the peerage as Lord Teignmouth.

In 1793, the Company's Charter was renewed. The leading features of Pitt's Bill of 1784 were upheld. Many merchants in England loudly protested against the monopoly of the Company, and consequently it was provided that the Company should give annually 3,000 tons of shipping in which private merchants might, on their own account, trade with India. This gave the first blow against the Company's monopoly of Eastern trade. The Charter was renewed for twenty years more.

1793.
Renewal of Charter.

CHAPTER X.

MARQUIS WELLESLEY (1798—1805).

Sir John Shore was succeeded by Lord Mornington who, after the Fourth Mysore War, became the Marquis Wellesley. His policy was that of creating a system of *Subsidiary Alliances*. By this system the Native States were not allowed any independence to form alliances of any kind without the consent of the British power; they were forbidden to employ foreigners in their service; they had to assign territory to the British for the maintenance of a British force stationed in the Native States; they were promised by the English to defend them against foreign enemies.

Wellesley's policy.

Subsidiary System.

Its main features.

The several degrees by which the British established their supreme military authority in every Native State.

The system of Subsidiary treaties played a very important part in the expansion of British dominion in India. The British began to take part in Indian wars by *lending a military contingent* to assist some Native ruler. This was the first stage. For example, Colonel Forde was sent by Clive to aid the Raja of Vizianagaram against the French. Warren Hastings assisted the Nawab of Oudh with a brigade against the Rohillas. The *next*

stage came when the *English took the field on their own account*, assisted usually by the forces of some prince who was their ally and whose soldiers were untrained and untrustworthy. The *third stage* came when the *Native ally was required to supply not men but money*, and the English undertook to raise, train and pay a fixed number of troops on receiving a subsidy equivalent to their cost. For example, the Nizam of Hyderabad and the Nawab of Oudh agreed to this arrangement. The *fourth stage* came, when, owing to the unpunctuality in money matters, this subsidy was paid irregularly; hence, the principle of *assignment of lands* for the payment of troops was established. The Nizam and the Nawab of Oudh consented to this.

Policy of Non-
intervention.
(1792--1798.)

Lord Cornwallis and Sir John Shore had followed so far as was possible, the "Non-intervention Policy," *i.e.*, the policy of holding aloof from the quarrels of the native powers, and of maintaining an attitude of strict neutrality except in the case of self-defence within the English borders. This policy was maintained by the English from 1792 to 1798; and the results were (1) Weakness and disaffection of the Nizam, (2) Grand preparations of Tippu, (3) Spread of the power of the Mahrattas.

Its effects.

During the six years extending from 1792 to 1798, the Nizam and Tippu were encouraged by the French. It must be remembered that this was the period of the French Revolution and the wars of Napoleon Bonaparte. The bitter feelings between the French and the English had been aroused, and Lord Mornington was determined to stamp out French influence in India. His first important act was to force the Nizam of Hyderabad to dismiss his French battalions and to maintain English troops in their place. The Nizam also promised never to employ a Frenchman.

1. *Mysore.*
Fourth Mysore War.
(1798—1799.)

Tippu Sultan opened negotiations with the French at *Mauritius* “for the express purpose of expelling the British nation from India.” It will be remembered that this was the period of the French Revolution and that therefore the French and the English were opposed to each other.

Cause. Lord Mornington heard that Bonaparte had gone on an expedition to Egypt. In 1799, Mornington demanded fresh securities from Tippu who refused to answer his ultimatum. Hence the war.

Plan. Lord Mornington set out for Madras. The Nizam sent 16,000 men who were commanded by Colonel Wellesley, the brother of the Governor-General. Two Generals were sent from Madras and Bombay to make a joint attack on Tippu. *General Harris*, the Commander-in-Chief from Madras invaded Mysore and *General Stuart* marched from Bombay.

Events.
1799.
Battles of Sedasir
and Mallavelli.

General Stuart from Bombay defeated Tippu at *Sedasir* before meeting Harris. General Harris defeated Tippu at *Mallavelli*.

Seringapatam was stormed and Tippu was slain. Tippu was 46 years old when he died.

Father and son compared.

Hyder was illiterate, yet he was the creator of an Empire. On the other hand, Tippu was a good scholar, yet he lost that Empire. Hyder had little regard for religion. Tippu was a religious bigot.

Conclusion. The war resulted in the dissolution of Mysore.

Results. (1) The English received Canara, Coimbatore and the Wynaad.

(2) Nizam got the “Ceded Districts.”

(3) Tippu's family was deposed, and his two sons were sent to Vellore on a handsome pension.

(4) The rest of Tippu's dominions was made into a kingdom and restored to the ancient Hindu family of Mysore. Raja Krishna Wodiar, a boy of five years belonging to that family, was placed on the throne under the English control; and Poorniah, Tippu's Brahman finance minister, was made *Dewan*.

(5) It was laid down that the whole military force for the defence of the country should be English, and that seven lakhs of pagodas should be paid annually for the maintenance of this force, and that in case of misgovernment the English might take possession of the province.

At the close of the Fourth Mysore War, Lord Mornington received the title of "*Marquis Wellesley*."

Importance of the
Dissolution of
Mysore.

The dissolution of Mysore was of considerable importance to the expansion of British dominion in India. For the last so many years, Mysore was a source of great danger to the British in South India. That danger was removed by the dissolution. The British acquired complete command over the sea-coast of the lower Peninsula.

II. *Nizam*.
Subsidiary Treaty,
1800.

In 1800, a Subsidiary Treaty was made with the Nizam, by which he gave the English the territory that he had acquired from Mysore, and promised not to make war, or to enter into negotiations with other powers without the sanction of the English. The British engaged to increase their troops in the Dekhan to defend him against his enemies.

III. *Karnatic*.
1801.

The Nawab of the Karnatic was intriguing with Tippu, and in 1801 the Nawab Omdutulumra died. Subsequently, the English Company took charge of the complete administration

of the Karnatic, giving the Nawab one-fifth of the revenue and taking upon itself the debts of the Nawab.

IV. *Tanjore.*
1799.

In 1799, a treaty was made with Sarfoji, the king of Tanjore, by which the English were to administer the country, giving the king an annual pension of a lakh of pagodas and a fifth of the surplus revenues.

V. *Surat.*
1800.

Surat was also similarly dealt with.

Thus, it is pretty clear that the old Double Government by which the English controlled the purse and the Natives the executive administration, was abolished.

VI. *Oudh.*
Treaty of Lucknow,
1801.

Owing to the corruption and misgovernment in Oudh, Wellesley compelled the Nawab to agree to the treaty of Lucknow, by which (1) the Company took charge of the administration, (2) the number of English troops in Oudh was increased and their pay was to be provided by the Nawab, (3) Rohilkhand and the Duab were given to the Company and the revenue of these territories was taken as an equivalent to the subsidy payable for troops.

The policy of Wellesley in taking Rohilkhand and the Duab must be noticed. (See Map in an Atlas). These were the frontier provinces of the Nawab of Oudh, and by taking them, Oudh was from that time surrounded *on all sides* by the English dominion. Clive and Hastings followed a different policy. They wished that Oudh should be a "Buffer-State", but Wellesley abandoned that policy and isolated the State in the centre of British dominion.

VII. *The Mahrattas.* All the chiefs and great powers of India were thus brought under British control, with the exception of the *Mahrattas*.

Five powers.

There were at this time five Mahratta powers:—(1) *Peishwa (Baji Rao II)*.

(2) *Daulat Rao Sindia*, wielding greater power than the Peishwa. The founder of this family was Ranoji Sindia whose son was the famous Mahadaji Sindia. Daulat Rao was the son of Mahadaji and had an army trained by French officers.

Ranoji Sindia (founder).

|
Mahadaji Sindia.

|
Daulat Rao Sindia.

(3) *Jaswant Rao Holkar* was also very powerful. He was the son of Tukaji Holkar, the Commander-in-Chief of Ahalya Bai, the daughter-in-law of Mulhar Rao Holkar who was the founder of this family.

Mulhar Rao Holkar (founder).

|
Son, married Ahalya Bai.

Ahalya Bai's Commander-in-Chief was Tukaji Holkar.

|
Jaswant Rao Holkar.

Ahalya Bai. *Ahalya Bai*.—She was the daughter-in-law of Mulhar Rao Holkar. She carried on the administration of Indore for 18 years (1767—1785). She was able and righteous, and made the village of Indore a large and wealthy capital. She died in 1795. She is worshipped even now at Indore.

(4) *The Bhonsles* with their capital at Nagpur.

(5) *The Gaekwars* ruling in Guzerat, with their capital at Baroda.

1800. Death of Nana Farnavis. These five Mahratta powers were constantly fighting among themselves. Nana Farnavis, the last Mahratta Statesman, died in 1800. Bajji Rao II. was a tool in the hands of Daulat Rao Sindia. The Peishwa and Daulat Rao Sindia were defeated at Poona by Jaswant Rao

1802.

Holkar. Thereupon, the Peishwa fled to the English, and urged by his necessities, signed a *treaty at Bassein*, by which (1) he allowed the English troops to be stationed at Poona, (2) he ceded territory to provide their pay, and (3) he agreed to make no treaty or war with other states without the consent of the British Government. Wellesley restored Baji Rao to Poona.

31st Dec. 1802.
Subsidiary Treaty
of Bassein.

The subsidiary treaty of Bassein virtually placed the East India Company at the head of the Mahratta confederacy. Previously to the treaty, there existed a British Empire in India. The treaty by its indirect or direct operations gave the Company the Empire of India.

Importance of the
Treaty of Bassein.

SECOND
MAHRATTA WAR.
(1802—1803).

Cause.

After the treaty of Bassein, the British were in a position to interfere in Mahratta affairs, and such idea of interference naturally took aback Sindia and Bhonsle who formed an alliance against the English.

Holkar preferred to watch the events, and was neutral.

Plan.

The war was waged in two fields, (1) the Dekhan and (2) Hindustan.

(1) *Dekhan* (1803). (See plan).

General Wellesley took Ahmadnagar. Colonel Stevenson was stationed on the Godaveri. General Stewart, between the Kistna and the Tungabhadra.

(Dekhan).

Events.

1803.
Battle of Assaye.

Wellesley defeated Raghoji Bhonsle of Barar and Sindia at *Assaye*. In this battle, four-fifths of the troops fighting on the side of the English were Native Sepoys and only the remaining one-fifth were English troops. Colonel Stevenson took Burhampur and Asirgarh.

Wellesley defeated once more Bhonsle at *Argaum* and captured Gawilghar. A treaty was made with Raghoji Bhonsle, by which (1) Bhonsle gave up Cuttack to the English, (2) He agreed to receive a British Resident at his court at Nagpur, and (3) he agreed to submit all disputes to British decision. (4) The territory west of the Wardha and south of Gawilghar was given to the Nizam.

The Bengal Presidency and the Madras Presidency were hitherto separated by the intervening territory of Orissa which belonged to the Bhonsle. By adding Orissa to the British dominion, the two British Presidencies were united together and a continuity was created in the British dominion on the East Coast. (See Map).

(2) *Hindustan* (1803).

General Lake was stationed at Cawnpore to attack Sindia's possessions in Hindustan. Colonel Powell was stationed at Allahabad ready to act on Bundelkhand. Another army was stationed at Cuttack, while General Murray went to Guzerat to take Broach.

General Lake took Aligarh, Delhi and Agra, and gained a complete victory at *Laswari* over Sindia's forces commanded by a Frenchman called Louis Bourquin.

The Guzerat army under Murray captured Broach and Champanir. Colonel Powell overran Bundelkhand.

A treaty was made with Sindia, by which (1) Sindia gave the English all his territories between the Jumna and the Ganges, and (2) he entered into a subsidiary alliance.

Thus, in the Second Mahratta War, Results of the War. Sindia and Bhonsle were crushed, Gaekwar had already accepted a subsidiary alliance. The only hostile Mahratta force left unsubdued was that of *Holkar*. The war between him and the English is sometimes called the Third Mahratta War (1804).

Importance of the year 1803. The year 1803 is a very memorable year in Indian History. It saw the power of the Mahrattas broken in the *South* by Wellesley, and in the *North* by General Lake. In that year, the English became the masters of Delhi and Agra, and they even became the supreme power in India. In short, we may say that in 1803, the British Empire supplanted the Mahratta Empire.

THIRD MAHRATTA WAR, 1804. Jaswant Rao Holkar who was hitherto watching events, expecting to be profited by the defeat of Sindia, his rival and enemy, had been living at this time in Rajputana, and had killed the English officers in his service. Cause. Holkar wished to take advantage of Sindia's helpless condition. When this was known to Lord Lake, Holkar was ordered to confine himself to his own territory; but Holkar refused. Hence the war.

Plan. General Lake who was in the North, was to march to Rajputana. General Wellesley was to march from the Dekhan, but famine in the Dekhan prevented him from going to the North, and therefore Colonel Murray, who was at Guzerat, was to join General Lake. Colonel Monson was also asked to watch the movements of Holkar.

Events. Colonel Monson marched into Central India, and Holkar by pretending to retreat, drew him far away from his supports. Then, when Monson tried to retire, Holkar turned upon him all on a sudden, and destroyed the British Monson's disaster.

force. Thus, the prestige of the British suffered for a time. Sindia, Bhonsle and Holkar besieged Delhi.

1804.	The English took Holkar's capital of
Battle of Dig.	Indore, and defeated him at Dig. The
1805.	Raja of Bhurtpore assisted Holkar in this
Lake failed to	battle; General Lake tried to punish the
take Bhurtpore.	Raja by capturing the fortress of Bhurt-

pore, but he failed to do so and came to terms with the Raja.

With the exception of Monson's disaster, the only failure of the English between 1803 and 1805 was the attempt to storm Bhurtpore.

1805.	Treaties were made with Holkar and
	Sindia. (See Sir George Barlow's adminis-
	tration.)

Wellesley's	Wellesley founded Indian Civil Service.
Reforms.	He opened a College at Fort William for
	training civilians. He established the

British authority as the paramount one in India by the system of Subsidiary Alliances. He brought Christianity to prominence. He made a careful provision for the defence of India by securing the person of Shah Alam, the Emperor, by refusing to give back the French possessions in India to the French at the Treaty of Amiens and by increasing the number of royal troops in India. He created the Bank at Calcutta. He encouraged Private Trade.

Owing to his small stature, his friends called him "*The glorious little man*," and owing to the bold steps he had taken to establish the British power as the supreme power in India by his annexations and subsidiary alliances, Professor Frazer calls him "*The haughty Napoleon of India*."

1805.	In 1805, Wellesley sailed for England.
Wellesley sailed	Wellesley established the British political
for England.	

Wellesley's Policy
examined.

and military superiority throughout India. The Native rulers of India had with them armies trained in imitation of the European system. These armies were all dissolved by the campaigns of Wellesley and Lord Lake. All possibility of Mahratta resistance was put down. By the system of Subsidiary Alliances introduced by Wellesley in all the Muhammadan and Mahratta States, Anglo-Indian troops took the place of the several thousands of soldiers maintained by them under foreign officers. The Anglo-Indian troops were paid from the revenues of the Native States. The Native States were in future made unable to combine for any purpose injurious to the interests of the British. In the time of Lord Clive, the British power was on a footing of political equality with other Indian powers; whereas, under Wellesley, that power became the supreme power. Thus, Clive had made the British *a power* in India, and Wellesley gave that power, to use his own words, "a commanding position" among all the States of India.

Wellesley wished to fix down the Mahratta rulers within the limits of their own country, and to break the continuity of Mahratta States by allowing a non-Mahratta State between a Mahratta State and the English territory. In *Northern India*, he desired to maintain the independence of petty States under British protection along the frontier of English territory to serve as barrier states between Mahratta and British territories. In *South India*, he wanted to create a connection between Madras and Bengal. By occupying the imperial cities of Delhi and Agra, he extended British territory from Bengal north-westward. By getting possession of Cuttack, in the treaty with Bhonsle, the two Presidencies of Bengal and Madras were joined, and the continuity of British territory south-eastward along the sea-coast was effected. Wellesley drove the Mahrattas from Delhi and took charge of the person and family of

the Mogul Emperor and allowed him royal rank and ample pension. This arrangement lasted till 1857.

Between 1799 and 1804, the following territories were brought within the administration of the *Madras Presidency*: Mysore, Tanjore, Ceded Districts and the Karnatic. At the same time the *Bombay Presidency* acquired valuable districts in Guzerat, and the influence of its Government became very powerful at the Mahratta capitals of Poona and Baroda. Within the administration of the *Bengal Presidency* were brought the important province of Bundelkhand and the districts obtained from Oudh and from Sindia. The only provinces that were entirely outside the sphere of British influence, were the *Panjab* where the Sikhs were becoming very powerful, and *Nepal*.

Summary.

To sum up. Wellesley pensioned off *petty chiefs* and annexed their States. With the *larger States*, he formed Subsidiary Alliances. He annexed Karnatic (1801), Tanjore (1799), and Surat (1800). The supremacy of the British was owned by *Mysore*, *Oudh*, the *Dekhan*, and the *Peishwa*. Wellesley humbled the *Gaekwar*, the *Bhonsle*, *Sindia*, and *Holkar*. The Rajputs were very glad to get British protection against the Mahrattas. Thus, he made British power and British influence supreme all over India. Clive had acquired Bengal, Behar, and Northern Circars, while Wellesley acquired Orissa, the Madras Presidency and the North-West Provinces. Thus was formed what was practically "British

Frazer's words
about Wellesley's
acts.

India." Frazer's summary of the work of Wellesley is interesting. "The *insanely vaunting* Sultan of Mysore, the *proud* Nizam of Hyderabad, the *puppet* Nawab Vizier of Oudh, the *fierce* Mahratta Chiefs Sindia, Holkar, the Bhonsle, the Gaekwar and the Peishwa were one and all forced to bow their heads before the imperious dictates of the new Governor-General. The *aged* emperor Shah Alam, deprived of his eye-

sight by the savage stab from the dagger of the insurgent Rohilla barbarian Gulam Khadir Khan, was glad to hide himself away as a pensioner of the English."

CHAPTER XI.

BRITISH INDIA.

LORD CORNWALLIS (SECOND TENURE 1805), AND
SIR GEORGE BARLOW (1805—1806).

The Court of Directors were alarmed at the rapid increase of British territory in India within such a short period as *seven* years, because, such an increase necessarily implied so much of responsibility on the part of the English to protect these States from invasion. They once more sent out Lord Cornwallis with instructions to carry out the Non-intervention Policy, to restore his conquests to Sindia, and to make concessions to Holkar. On the 29th July, 1805, Lord Cornwallis arrived, but died at Ghazipur on the 5th. October, 1805. He was succeeded by *Sir George Barlow* who strictly carried out the *Peace Policy*. He entered into a treaty with Sindia on the 23rd. November, 1805, by which (1) *Gwalior* was given back to him. (2) He was given a pension of 4 lakhs of rupees. (3) The English bound themselves not to make treaties with the Rajputs or to interfere with Sindia's conduct towards them.

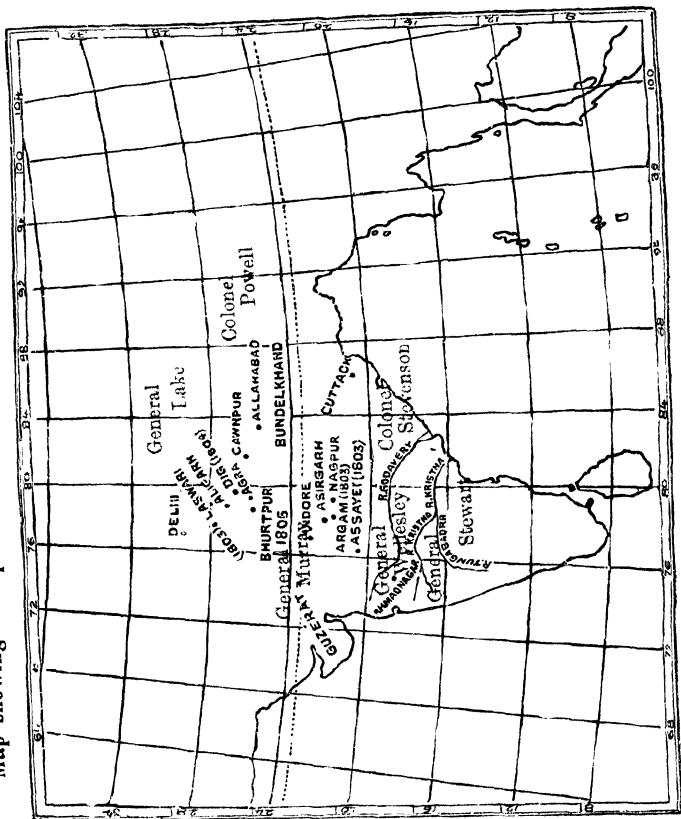
Lake drove Holkar into the Panjab and compelled him to surrender. His territory was limited and he was prevented from attacking the Rajputs; but all these efforts of Lake were rendered useless by the peace-policy of Barlow. He made a treaty with Holkar in January 1806, by which (1) the territories taken by the English from Holkar were to be restored, (2) the treaty made by the British with the Rajputs was to be

5th October, 1805,
Cornwallis died.

Treaty with Sindia,
1805.

Treaty with Holkar,
January, 1806.

Map showing the operations in the 2nd and 3rd Mahratta Wars.



cancelled on the ground that they had deserted the English in the war with Holkar. This naturally exposed the Rajputs to the attacks of Holkar. The Rajputs were plundered by Holkar who was assisted by the robber-chief *Amir Khan*.

There was a mutiny at Vellore in 1806.
 Vellore Mutiny, 1806. The Madras sepoy's at Vellore were dissatisfied when they were forced to wear a kind of head-dress which they hated and when they were ordered to appear in a new model. They rose on behalf of the family of Tippu against the English troops. The mutiny was put down by Colonel Gillespie who came from Arcot.

Causes.
 Its results. The Court of Directors recalled Lord William Bentinck, the Governor of Madras, and Sir John Craddock, the Commander-in-Chief. (2) The new Army-regulations were cancelled. (3) Missionaries were forbidden to preach. Sir George Barlow was made Governor of Madras.

Shah Alam died, 1806. The Mogul Emperor, Shah Alam, died in 1806 and was succeeded by his son Muhammad Akbar II.

CHAPTER XII.

LORD MINTO (1807—1813).

Lord Minto succeeded Sir George Barlow as Governor-General of India. He was a strong supporter of the policy of non-intervention; but he was compelled to abandon that policy in certain cases.

It was already pointed out in the tenth chapter that the only provinces that were completely outside the sphere of British influence were the *Panjab* and *Nepal*.

THE PANJAB.
The Sikhs.

We must now speak of the Panjab. The *Sikhs* were Hindu sectaries living in the Panjab, much more closely bound together by ties of race and common religion than the Mahrattas. Their founder was Nanak Shah who lived about the end of the fifteenth century. He maintained that the Hindu and Muhammadan modes of worship were equally acceptable to the Creator. He tried to unite the followers of those two religions into a new pure sect. This sect lived peacefully for more than a century until the Sikhs were persecuted under the Mogul Emperors. The Muhammadan bigotry changed them into warriors. In the reign of the bigoted Aurangazeb, Guru Govind, their tenth Guru from Nanak, converted them into a powerful military commonwealth in 1675. Caste distinction was abolished, and all the members of the sect were on a footing of perfect equality, whether they were Muhammadan or Hindu. The successor of Guru Govind was Banda. The Emperor drove the Sikhs into the hills and took their last fortress, but Banda escaped. The Afghan ruler Ahmad Shah Durani defeated and slew many of the Sikhs in 1761. In 1773, Ahmad Shah died. His successors were not so powerful and lost their hold on the Panjab. The Sikhs gradually became more and more powerful. By the year 1785, they became masters of the whole country between the Jhelum and the Sutlej.

At the time of which we are now speaking, Ranjit Singh. this nation was united by the genius and abilities of Ranjit Singh. This Chief was born in 1780. In 1800, he was appointed Governor of Lahore by Ahmad Shah. He soon threw off the Afghan yoke and made himself independent. He gave a European training to the Sikh army and gradually extended his conquests till he became the ruler of a greater part of the Panjab. An attack of small-pox deprived him of the sight of one eye. Though illiterate, his name was a terror throughout the Panjab. He was therefore called the

“Lion of Lahore.” He made aggressions on the territories between the Sutlej and the Jumna ; but these territories were under British protection. Seeing that the greater part of India was now brought under British control, one may fairly expect the English to have fought with Ranjit Singh for his aggression ; but they did not fight for two reasons. (1) Lord Minto was an advocate of the policy of non-intervention. (2) The friendship of Ranjit Singh was very indispensable to the English on this occasion. This was the period of the Napoleonic wars in Europe. Napoleon arranged with the Czar of Russia to make a joint expedition against India. In order to prevent any such expedition and to ensure the safety of the

British territory, it was very necessary that the frontier territories should be friendly.

(See Map). With a view to secure their friendship, Lord Minto sent embassies to Persia, Afghanistan and the Panjab. Sir Charles Metcalfe was sent to Ranjit Singh. The troops of Ranjit Singh were withdrawn from beyond the Sutlej, which, since then, formed the boundary between the Sikh territory and the States under British protection. Ranjit Singh remained a faithful friend of the English.

Colonel Malcolm was sent to Persia and Mountstuart Elphinstone to Afghanistan to prevent the designs of Napoleon Bonaparte. These embassies were fruitless.

It must be remembered that, till the beginning of the nineteenth century, England was attempting to assert an easy mastery over Indian States, and all the wars were mainly those that occurred *within India* ; but from the beginning of the last century may be dated the establishment of the undisputed ascendancy of the British within India. In the beginning of the same century there was the beginning of the fears of foreign invasion to India from Europe *by land*.

1810. During the war with Napoleon, the English took Bourbon and Mauritius from the French ; but the former was restored to France in 1814.

Minto took Java from the Dutch ; but it was restored in 1815.

NEPAL. As has already been said, Nepal was another independent state. The Ghurkas of Nepal made encroachments upon two districts which had been given by the Nawab of Oudh to the English ; and this led to disputes. Lord Minto asked for the restoration of the districts.

Mutiny at Madras, 1809. Sir George Barlow was the Governor of Madras at this time. He was asked to curtail the expenditure in the Madras Presidency ; accordingly he abolished the "Tent Contract," by which the officers were furnished with a monthly allowance for providing tent equipage to their soldiers, whether they were on duty or not. The officers mutinied, but the rebellion was put down by Lord Minto, and Barlow was recalled.

Effects of Minto's Non-intervention Policy. The Non-intervention policy followed by Lord Minto was attended with the following consequences :—

- (1) Anarchy prevailed outside the British territories in India.
- (2) Jaswant Rao Holkar oppressed the subjects, committed murders and became insane.
- (3) Amir Khan, the Pathan chief, became more powerful. He attacked Nagpur, but when the English interfered on behalf of the Raja of Nagpur, Amir Khan returned to Indore.
- (4) The States of Jaipur and Jodhpur quarrelled and all the Rajputs were involved in their quarrels.
- (5) The Pindaris spread their ravages over the whole of Central India.

The Mahrattas including the Peishwa were under the im

pression that they would soon expel the British from India and recover their lost prestige.

The Company's Charter was renewed for twenty years more. (1) The Company was still allowed to maintain its political power, but under the control of the English ministry. (2) The Company's trade monopoly *so far as India was concerned* was abolished, except with regard to Canton in China. Thus Indian trade was thrown open to the whole nation. (3) Christianity was allowed the same freedom as other religions. (4) £10,000 a year was to be spent on education.

Thus, the year 1813 is a very important year. Indian trade was thrown open to the whole nation and missionaries were allowed to preach freely.

Minto Resigned.

Lord Minto resigned in 1813.

CHAPTER XIII.

LORD MOIRA (MARQUIS OF HASTINGS).

(4TH. OCTOBER, 1813—1ST. JANUARY, 1823)

On the resignation of Lord Minto, Lord Moira succeeded as Governor-General and Commander-in-Chief in India. He had the reputation of being in his day the "Ugliest man in England," but he was very generous and kind to his employes and gave all credit to them.

As we have seen, the system of Subsidiary alliances was introduced by Wellesley with a view to establish the British as the paramount power in India; but we must now examine the effects of the system. (1) The loose plundering hired soldiers in Native States entirely disappeared. (2) The internal authority of the rulers of the subsidized Native States was considerably weakened, when the military power of

Effects of the system
of Subsidiary alli-
ances.

those states was brought under the control of the English. (3) So far as the native rulers of such states were concerned, the feeling of responsibility to govern well and moderately was decreased, because the British were sure to give protection in the event of attack or revolt. (4) The system saved these states from destruction in the incessant warfare that prevailed.

Lord Moira was at first opposed to the policy of Wellesley; but soon after his arrival, he saw the necessity of putting down the power of *Amir Khan* and the *Pindaris*.

Moira's Policy. He thought that it was necessary that the British should have control over all Indian States. Before he tried to crush *Amir Khan* and the *Pindaris*, his attention was drawn to the affairs in *Nepal*.

Early history of NEPAL. A glance at the map will show that Nepal is situated on the southern slopes of the Himalayas. The country is very hilly. It was originally inhabited by the Newars whose religion was Buddhism. In 1767, the Ghurkas who were Hindus and who were strong and sturdy, conquered Nepal. The head of the Ghurkas and the founder of the Ghurka kingdom of Nepal was *Prithi Narayan*. After his death, greater portions of Sikkim, Kumaon and Tibet were brought within the limits of the Ghurka kingdom of Nepal. Prithi's grandson Rao Bahadur was as cruel as his grandfather. He married a Brahman widow who died leaving behind an infant. Rao Bahadur left the country giving the kingdom to his infant son. In 1804, Rao Bahadur was murdered. Bhim Sen Thapa wielded all the power in the State during the reign of the infant king.

Nepal is a hilly country. The highlands of Nepal were conquered by the Ghurkas, and the lowlands by the English. The Ghurkas, with a view to conquer the Lowlands, began to have constant quarrels with the English Government. The Nepalese

1. Nepalese War.
1814—1816.

officers on the frontier made encroachments upon the lands of the British subjects and occupied two districts belonging to the Nawab of Oudh by whom they were ceded to the British. Lord Minto's ultimatum asking the Nepalese to retire, if they

Cause. wished that the British should not use force, was fruitless. Lord Moira sent an

ultimatum fixing a day for the restoration of the two Oudh districts ; but the day having passed, he sent a British detachment and re-occupied the districts, and the Ghurka officers quietly retired ; but as soon as the British troops had been withdrawn from these districts, the Ghurkas suddenly attacked the English police-stations and massacred some of the policemen. The Nepal Government, after holding a council, had resolved upon war with the English, on the belief that the English could never penetrate into the mountains of Nepal. This war had inspired the Mahrattas with some hope of finding their opportunity in the difficulties of the British.

Plan of the War. The attack was made by the British at three separate points—to the East, to the West and to the centre. General David Ochterlony was to march to the *West*. Colonel Wood to the *East*. General Gillespie to *Jytak*. General Marley to Khatmandu by way of *Makwanpur*.

Events. General Gillespie was killed in an attempt to storm the fortress of Kalinga. General Martindale succeeded him, but failed to take Jytak.

1816. Colonel Wood, the Commander of the Eastern division, was also repulsed by the Ghurkas whose soldiery was equipped and drilled in European style. These failures alarmed the English at Calcutta ; but the successes of General Ochterlony soon encouraged the British. This able General had fought under Sir Eyre Coote against Hyder Ali. He also defeated Jaswant Rao Holkar in 1804, when the latter attacked Delhi.

1816. Ochterlony advanced from the West,
 Battle of captured Jytak, Kumaon, and the last hill
 Makwanpur. fortress of *Maloun*, with the Ghurka general
Amar Singh. He defeated the Ghurkas at
Makwanpur. The fall of *Maloun* frightened the minister *Bhim*
Sen Thapa. Thereupon, the Nepal Government sent Com-
 missioners to sign a treaty ; but the Chinese having promised
 aid in the meantime, the treaty came to
 1816. nothing and war was continued. Ochter-
 Battle of lony defeated the Ghurkas at *Khatmandu*,
 Khatmandu. their capital. The war was concluded by
 a treaty called the *peace of Sigauli*, by which
 Conclusion. the Ghurkas gave all their territory west
 Peace of Sigauli. of the Kali River and the *Tarai* ; they also
 1816. accepted a British Resident at *Khatmandu*.

At the close of this war, the British acquired *Simla*, *Masauri*,
Landour, and *Nani Tal*.

Meanwhile, the English Government felt great anxiety owing
 to the threatened combinations of the *Pindaris* and the *Mahrattas*.

The *Pindaris* did not belong to any par-
 II. *The Pindaris*. ticular race or creed. They were mainly
 composed of Afghans, Jats and the *Mahrattas*. They were
 bands of mounted robbers whose sole object was general *plun-*
der. During the wars of Wellesley with the *Mahrattas*, the
Pindaris were employed by the *Mahrattas* chiefs ; but after the
 conclusion of the *Mahratta* wars, the *Pindaris* spread all over
 the country and began to plunder several places including
 British lands and the *Nizam's* territory. Thus, they were a
 source of danger to the British. The chief *Pindari* leaders
 were *Karim Khan* and *Chitu*. Lord Hastings, therefore, resolved
 upon crushing these plunderers.

With a view to closing in upon the
 Plan of the Pindaris and to render them helpless, it
 Campaign. was first necessary to make peace with

other troublesome leaders who were likely to assist the Pindaris. Accordingly, the Governor-General made peace with (1) *Sindia*, by which Sindia agreed to a new treaty pledging himself to fight against the Pindaris and recognizing the dependence of the Rajput States on English protection. (2) *Amir Khan*, by which he was compelled to reduce his army, to sell his guns to the English, to stop any depredations in his territory, and to co-operate with the English in extirpating the Pindaris. The Nawabs of Tonk in Rajputana are descended from him. (3) The Holkar. Jaswant Rao Holkar had died from the effects of madness. His wife was Tulsai Bai, and his son was Mulhar Rao Holkar.

Battle of Mahidpur, 1817.	The military leaders attacked the English, but were defeated at <i>Mahidpur</i> by Sir John Malcolm. Holkar gladly came under
Treaty of Mandeswar.	British protection by signing the treaty of <i>Mandeswar</i> , by which Holkar had to confirm the grants made to Amir Khan and to receive a British Resident at his Court.

All the troublesome parties were thus brought under British authority, and the Pindaris were therefore left alone and helpless. It was easy now to crush the Pindaris.

General *Hislop* with *Dorseton* advanced from Madras. General *Kur* was to advance on the Bombay side.

Kharim surrendered and received a small portion of land in Gorakpur. The other leader Chitu was pursued closely by Sir John Malcolm, but was devoured by a tiger in the forest of Asirgarh. Thus, the Pindaris were crushed.

III. *The Peishwa.*

1815.

1816.

The great favourite of the Peishwa at this time was Trimbakji Dainglia who murdered Gangadhar Sastri, the prime-minister of the Gaekwar of Baroda. Mountstuart Elphinstone, the Resident of

Puna, imprisoned him at Thana on the island of Salsette ; but he escaped and fled to Khandesh. The Peishwa made a secret arrangement with him to drive the British out of India. Elphinstone forced him to sign a new treaty at Puna, by which Baji Rao was to give Ahmadnagar and other territory, to hand over Trimbakji to the English and to accept the authority of the English. The Peishwa had no desire to bow to the terms of the treaty. He insulted Elphinstone and burned the Residency, but was defeated at *Kharki*.
 1817. The Peishwa fled and joined Trimbakji.

Meanwhile, the Raja of Nagpur rose in arms. Raghoji Bhonsle died in 1816 leaving behind him a son who was an idiot. The idiot was killed by Raghoji's nephew, Appa Saheb, who became the Raja of Nagpur. Appa Saheb made common cause with the Peishwa, and attacked Battle of Sitabaldi Hills. Jenkins, the Resident, at *Sitabuldi Hills*, but was defeated by the English. The Mahratta army was defeated at *Jubbulpur*. Appa Saheb was imprisoned at Allahabad, but he escaped and fled to Jodhpur. Baji Rao, a grandson of Raghoji Bhonsle, was then placed on the throne, and the administration was brought under British control.

The Peishwa raised fresh armies to attack the English. Captain Staunton defeated the Peishwa at *Koregam* ; the Peishwa at last surrendered to the English.
 1818. The Raja of Satara, a descendant of Sivaji was allowed some share of the former dignity of the dynasty. The dominions of the Peishwa in the Bombay Presidcy were taken over by the English. A pension of 8 lakhs of rupees was given to him and was allowed to live in *Bithaur* near Cawnpore.
 Peishwa Pensioned.

By the extinction of the Peishwa and the subjugation of all the Mahrattas, Lord Hastings completed the work begun

by Wellesley, of making the British power supreme in India, and of making all states "subsidiary or tributary" to the British Empire. One power only remained independent, *viz.*, the *Sikhs* beyond the Sutlej.

Lord Hastings' administration. Lord Hastings was an excellent administrator. During his administration, education developed and the Hindu College in Calcutta was founded in 1817. There was general prosperity in the land.

1823. Lord Hastings left India, and Mr. John Adam acted as Governor-General until the arrival of Lord Amherst.

State of India in 1823. About the year 1823, the whole of India except Sindh and the Panjab, was brought under British control. The British power became supreme. There was likely to be some disturbance only on two sides; on the North-east, the *Burmese* were trying to come into Assam; and on the North-west, the *Sikh Kingdom* beyond the Sutlej grew very powerful under Ranjit Singh. Both Sindh and the Panjab were conquered within 1849. Thus by the year 1849, British dominion in India was completed by the annexation of Sindh in 1843 by Sir Charles Napier and the conquest of the Panjab in 1849 by Dalhousie.

CHAPTER XIV.

LORD AMHERST (1823—1828).

The year 1823 is a very important year in the history of the expansion of British dominion in India. Hitherto, the East India Company waged wars *within* India; and ever since the French withdrew in 1763 down to the close of the Pindari War in 1818, the Native Indian powers were the only enemies of the English. In 1823, British India more or less converged

with the geographical boundaries of India proper. Hereafter, the English had to come in contact with non-Indian States. From the North-east, the *Burmese* began to challenge the English.

The Kingdom of Burmah was founded in 1757 by Alompra, a Burmese military leader who subjugated Pegu which stretched far southward down the eastern shores of the Bay of Bengal. The Burmese troops were trying to press westward.

The Kingdom of Assam lay on the north-east of Bengal between the British territory and Burmah. In Assam, there were contests for power among the princes of the royal line. In India, a disputed succession always led to the coming of a foreigner to settle the dispute and ultimately to annex the territory where the dispute prevailed. In Assam, the defeated party applied to the Burmese for help. The Burmese were successful in reinstating the defeated party. This prince soon began to realize his dependent position upon the Burmese who had not only been able to reinstate the king but had also the power to depose him, and therefore, he attacked the Burmese.

I. *The First
Burmese War.*
(1824—1826).

They deposed him and reinstated one after another several puppet kings, until at last they annexed Assam and appointed their own governor over that kingdom. The Burmese were busy in subduing all the north-east corner of India.

Causes.

(1) The Burmese conquered Manipur and tried to enter Cachar which was then under British protection. They also claimed the British district of Sylhet. (2) The King of Assam who was deposed by the Burmese and many of the fugitives of Assam took refuge in British territory. Many of the Arakanese (Mugs) took refuge in Chittagong, and the fugitives of Manipur took refuge in Cachar. The Burmese demanded the

surrender of all of these. (3) They drove out an English garrison from Shapuri, an island on the Naf River in Chittagong. Thereupon, Lord Amherst declared war.

If an invading enemy is ignorant of the Geography of a new country, the disadvantages to the enemy may be easily imagined. In the recent South African War, for example, the English had to labour under the same difficulty. Similarly, in the war with the Burmese, the English were quite new to Burmah and had to face the same difficulty.

The Madras Army was called on, since caste forbade the Bengal Army to go beyond India. On the side of Assam, the British did not succeed; but as they were good naval fighters, a small army under *Sir Archibald Campbell* was despatched across the Bay of Bengal to attack Rangoon. (See Map annexed). The English were, of course, successful here.

Events.
Battle of Ramu.

The Burmese General was *Maha Bandula*. He invaded Chittagong and defeated the English at *Ramu*.

Meanwhile, the English fleet took *Mergui*, *Martaban* and other Tenasserim forts, and drove out the Burmese from these places, as well as, from Assam, Cachar and Manipur.

Sir Archibald Campbell advanced up the river Irawadi, and in order to check his advance, Maha Bandula was recalled from the north-west; but he was defeated by Campbell.

Meanwhile, *General Morrison* attacked Arakan.

Battle of Donabu.
Bandula slain.

Campbell was marching by land towards *Prome*, but when *General Cotton* attacked Bandula at *Donabu*, Campbell turned off and assisted Cotton. They both defeated and slew him and took Donabu. They also took Prome.

1826. The English gained another victory near Prome where a battle was fought for three days.

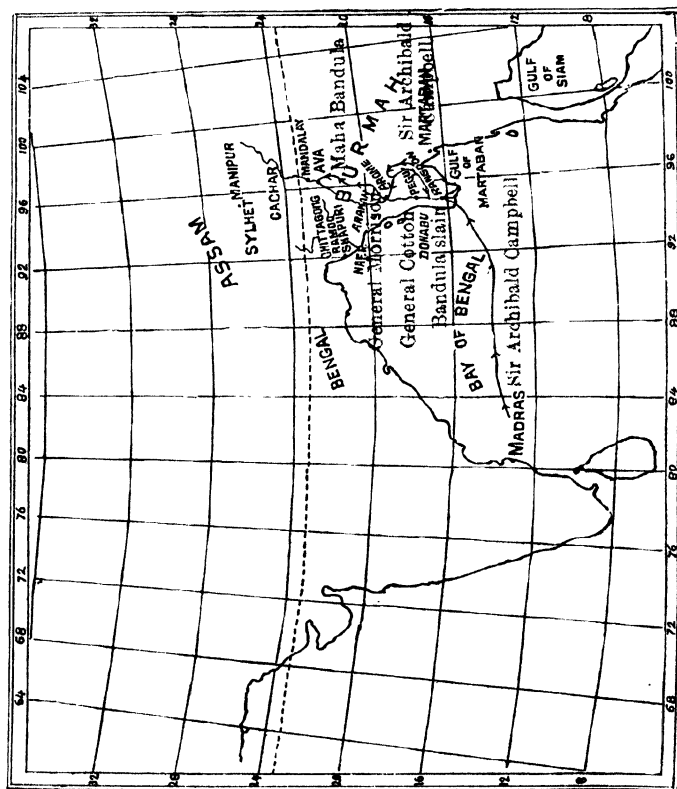
Conclusion. Campbell marched onwards to *Ava*. The
1826. Burmese King, frightened at the approach
Peace of Yendabu. of the English army, signed a treaty at
Yendabu, by which (1) Assam, Tenasserim and Arakan were
ceded to the British. (2) The Burmese were not to interfere
in the affairs of Manipur and Cachar. (3) The Burmese King
was to receive a British Resident at his Court. (4) He was
to pay the English one *crore* of rupees towards the expenses
of the war. Prome, Pegu and the maritime city of Rangoon,
were still owned by the Burmese.

Importance of the War. This war is very important as it carried
British arms *for the first time* beyond the
Indian frontier, and brought the Burmese,
a people different by race and creed, under the English rule.
(The Burmese were Buddhists belonging to the Mongolian
race.)

Assam, Cachar and Manipur, are now incorporated within
the Chief Commissionership of Assam.

II. Capture of Bhurtpore, 1826. It will be remembered that Lord Lake
failed to capture Bhurtpore in 1805. In 1825,
Baldeo Singh, the Raja of Bhurtpore, died
leaving a son Bulwant Singh only six years old, to succeed
him. His succession was recognized by the English Commis-
sioner Sir David Ochterlony. The boy-king's cousin, Durjan
Sal, deposed and imprisoned him and usurped the power. Sir
David Ochterlony, the hero of the Nepal War, threatened to
punish Durjan Sal; but was checked by Lord Amherst and
was recalled. Ochterlony's successor was Metcalfe who tried
to peacefully settle the affair; but Durjan Sal remained
obstinate.

Map showing the operations in the First Burmese War.



1825-1826. Lord Cumbermere attacked the fortress of Bhurtpore, mined and blew up the wall, and took the fortress by assault. Bulwant Singh was placed on the throne and Durjan Sal was imprisoned at Allahabad.

Within India, it must be noticed that there were at this time only two sovereign powers, the *English* and the *Sikhs*. (Of course, there were also the *Amirs of Sindh*).

III. Mutiny at Barrackpur, 1824. The Sepoys mutinied at Barrackpur, but the mutiny was easily put down, and seven of the ringleaders were slain, while the rest were pardoned.

1827. Daulat Rao Sindia died.

Lord Amherst visited Simla. *This was the first time that a Governor-General went there.* It must be reminded that Simla was acquired by the British at the close of the Nepal War.

8th. March, 1828. Amherst sailed for England.

CHAPTER XV.

LORD WILLIAM BENTINCK (1828—1835).

Lord William Bentinck's administration was distinguished, not by wars or important annexations, but by the reforms he introduced and by the blessings he conferred upon the people. It was a period of domestic improvements and quiet material progress. It was an era of some important moral and educational reforms. Lord Clive, Wellesley and Dalhousie are best remembered for their great conquests and annexations; but Bentinck, Canning and Ripon are ever remembered for the blessings they have conferred on us at a time of peace.

We have just noticed that Lord Amherst had closed a costly and troublesome Burmese war. He was succeeded by Lord

William Bentinck. Lord Auckland succeeded Bentinck and witnessed the beginning of the disastrous campaigns in Afghanistan. Thus, Bentinck's administration was an interval of calm rulership between Amherst and Auckland.

Reforms of
Bentinck.

Lord William Bentinck introduced several reforms which were calculated to do immense good to the people.

(1) In spite of opposition both from Europeans and Natives, he boldly passed a law in 1829, putting an end to the burning of Indian widows (*Sati*) in the Bengal Presidency, and in 1830, in the other two Presidencies.

(2) He introduced more natives into the Government service, probably, with a view to save money.

(3) He brought the Malwa Opium trade under the British control.

(4) He stopped the practice of either receiving presents from, or giving presents to, the Company's servants.

(5) He reorganised the judicial courts and allowed greater powers to a larger number of native judges. He increased their salaries. Shortly after, Indian Deputy Collectors were appointed on adequate pay to help European Collectors in the revenue administration of the country. With him began the modern history of British administration in India.

1829—1835.

(6) The Thugs were suppressed by Smith and Sleeman. The Thugs were travelling murderers found at the time, in all parts of India, in various disguises. They robbed travellers. Their usual mode of killing was *strangling*. (Read the book called "Confessions of a Thug.")

1835.

(7) In accordance with a Government Resolution, *English* was made the official language of India.

His Annervations.
1830, *Mysore.*

The Maharajah of Mysore was governing badly and the people began to rebel. Thereupon, the Rajah was deposed and the State was put under an English Commissioner. This arrangement lasted for more than fifty years, and Mysore was restored to Native Indian rule in 1881.

The Rajah of Coorg governed the country badly and treated the subjects most cruelly. The British were compelled to interfere. Bentinck invaded Coorg in 1834, the Rajah surrendered and was deposed. Coorg was annexed at the request of the people.

External affairs.

(1) With a view to open the Indus to British trade, two commercial treaties were made, one with Ranjit Singh in 1832, and another with the Amirs of Sindh in 1834.

(2) He made Singapore, the capital of the Straits Settlements.

(3) In 1830, he decided to use steam communication between England and India, *via.*, the Red Sea.

1833, Renewal of the
Charter

The Company's charter was again renewed for a further period of twenty years.

(1) The Company's monopoly, even as regards the trade with China, was abolished, but (2) the Company continued to have the political power over India. (3) An additional member was added to the Council, when engaged in the business of making laws, and Macaulay was the first of the legislative members. (4) All the power of making laws and the power of spending independently, were taken away from Madras and Bombay Councils.

Lord William Bentinck was the first and last Governor-General in whose time unbroken peace prevailed in British India.

CHAPTER XVI.

SIR CHARLES METCALFE AND LORD AUCKLAND.

Sir Charles Metcalfe acted as Governor-General from March 1835, to March, 1836. His administration is best remembered for the entire Liberty of the Press which he allowed. The Public Library at Calcutta is called Metcalfe Hall.

Lord Auckland
(1836-1842).

In 1842, Macaulay's Penal Code was drawn up.

In 1838, the Arabs outraged some English who were shipwrecked at Aden. On account of the outrage, as a compensation, they promised to cede Aden to the English; but as the promise was not fulfilled, Aden was taken by force by the British, in 1839.

In June, 1839, Ranjit Singh died.

At this time, Napoleon was the "Terror of Europe." He and the Czar of Russia formed a plan of universal conquest. It was feared that India was not free from the danger of being invaded by the Russians. In order to save India from this danger, it was necessary that the kingdom of Afghanistan on our North-western frontier should be carefully protected. Even if Persia which is beyond Afghanistan, were conquered by the Russians, India's safety could still be preserved by the interposition of a friendly state like Afghanistan.

Let us imagine a case of house-breaking and robbery in a village with only *three houses in a row*. When the robbers come to the village, it is the duty of the occupants of all the three houses to make a united stand against the robbers; or, if perhaps, the first house is plundered and if the second also is in danger of meeting with the same fate, it is the duty of the occupant of the third house, in his own selfish interest at least,

to co-operate with his neighbour to keep off the robbers. If he fails to do so, there is not the slightest doubt that not only will the second house be plundered, but even the third house will be visited and plundered by the robbers. In other words, when the robbers are in the first house, the second house may

Illustration. be used, by friendship and co-operation, as a means of keeping off the robbers from the third house. The second house is then said to be a *Buffer-House*." A *buffer* may be seen in a railway van. It is an apparatus with powerful springs attached to railway carriages to prevent injury from forcible contact.

Let us now apply the circumstances of this imaginary case to the facts that we are about to study.

A glance at the Map will show that India, Afghanistan and Persia lie in a row. These may be compared to the three houses. The Russians are the invaders coveting to conquer all the three countries one after another. India must, in the interests of her own safety, befriend both Afghanistan and Persia and co-operate with them to repel the invading Russians. Even if Persia were conquered by the Russians, the interposition of a friendly Afghanistan would save India from a Russian invasion. In this case, Afghanistan would be a "*Buffer-state*."

It will no doubt be clear, now, that it was very necessary for the British Government to interfere in the affairs of Afghanistan and Persia.

In 1826, Russia attacked Persia which, by the year 1828, passed under Russian influence. Persia ceased to be a *buffer*. As the Russians marched one step forward, the British had to go back and place their foot on Afghanistan.

The Russians were naturally prepared to advance still further. Rumours of Russian invasion led to the formation of a union

of *British India, Afghanistan, Panjab, Sindh and Baluchistan*, against Russian aggression.

Persia having passed under Russian influence, Afghanistan was the only "*buffer-state*." The English were therefore anxious for a strong and united Afghanistan.

We must, now, examine the internal political condition of Afghanistan at this time, and then trace the relations between our rulers and the Afghans.

Afghanistan was divided into three parts, each under a different ruler. (1) *Kabul* under Dost Muhammad. (2) *Kandhar* under his brothers. (3) *Herat* under Kamran, one of the *Populzai* clan. (See genealogical table.) *Durani* conveys the idea of *Shah*, for example, Ahmed Shah Durani. All persons belonging to the *populzai* clan were *Shahs*. The *Barakzai* clan conveys the idea of *Ministers*. Persons belonging to the *Barakzai* clan were *Ministers*.

We already noticed that Ahmad Shah Durani defeated the Mahrattas at Panipat in 1761. His descendants continued to rule in Afghanistan and in the Panjab, until the time of Ranjit Singh who recovered the independence of the Panjab about the year 1800.

Shah Shuja was descended from Ahmad Shah Abdali who was the creator of the Afghan kingdom; but a few years before this time, his family had been supplanted by the sons of a powerful minister.

N.B.—*Similar instances of the ministerial dynasty supplanting the royal line are not wanting in Asia. The royal house of the Mahratta Empire was supplanted by the ministerial dynasty (Peishwas). A similar change took place in Nepal in the last century.*

The first Afghan
War.

Shah Shuja of the royal line was banished from the country, and Dost Mahomed of the ministerial dynasty became the ruler of Kabul. In order to keep a hold over Afghanistan, Lord Auckland now found an opportunity for interference. He thought that by reinstating Shah Shuja, he could gain his object. Accordingly, he declared war against Dost Mahomed. Since it is easier to simply recognise a ruling sovereign than to restore another to the throne, a question may be raised as to why Lord Auckland did not allow Afghanistan to be united under Dost Mahomed instead of attempting to restore Shah Shuja to the throne. The answer is to be found in the following circumstance. Ranjit Singh received *Peshawar* from the Afghans in 1834. Two years later, Dost Mahomed asked for English aid to enable him to conquer the whole of Afghanistan *including Peshawar*. Lord Auckland refused to quarrel with Ranjit Singh, because the friendship of the Panjab was very necessary, as the country lay between the British-territory and Afghanistan.

1837.

Having been disappointed, Dost Mahomed opened negotiations with Persia and Russia, and attacked *Peshawar* in 1837, but he was defeated at *Jamrud*.

The Persians at the instigation of the Russians, besieged *Herat*, the chief frontier city of the Afghans and the key to all routes leading from Persia to India. Eldred Pottingen was the English Lieutenant who distinguished himself on this occasion.

Just at this time, Dost Mahomed received a Russian embassy with honor. *Burnes* was sent to Kabul to negotiate, and he told Auckland that Dost Mahomed would abandon Russia and Persia, if he was given *Peshawar*. Auckland thought that the friendship of Ranjit Singh was more important than that of

Dost Mahomed, and resolved upon restoring Shah Shuja to the throne and rescuing Herat.

To reinstate Shah Shuja, a Triple Alliance was formed between Sir William Macnaghten (the chief Secretary who visited Ranjit Singh), Ranjit Singh and Shah Shuja.

Though the Persians retired from the siege of Herat, Auckland resolved upon supporting Shah Shuja, and planned an expedition against Dost Mahomed. He promised to withdraw the British Army from Afghanistan as soon as Shah Shuja was restored to the throne.

Two British armies, one from Bengal under *Sir Willoughby Cotton* and the other from Bombay under *Sir John Keane*, were set in motion; but Ranjit Singh refused to allow the British troops to pass through the Panjab. Then, they had to pass through *Sindh* to Afghanistan. *Sindh was the base of operations in this war.*

1839. Sir John Keane who came from Bombay, entered *Kandahar* along with Shah Shuja, and stormed *Ghazni*. Sir Willoughby Cotton entered *Kabul*.

Dost Mahomed fled to Bokhara, and Shah Shuja was placed on the throne. Thus, the object of the expedition was gained. Auckland was made an Earl and certain honors were conferred upon Keane. Auckland wished to maintain English garrisons at *Kabul*, *Kandahar*, *Ghazni* and *Jalalabad*. Macnaghten was sent as an envoy to Shah Shuja.

It will be remembered that Auckland promised to withdraw British forces, after placing Shah Shuja on the throne. True to his promise, most, but not all, of the English forces were withdrawn; but as they withdrew, they stormed *Khelat* and deposed its Khan. *General Nott* was in charge of *Kandahar*, and he secured his communications with *Sindh*.

Dost Mahomed
surrendered to
Macnaghten and
was sent to Calcutta.

Meanwhile, the English and Shah Shuja soon became unpopular in Afghanistan. Macnaghten who was sent to Kabul, was trying to get hold of Dost Mahomed. The latter at last surrendered to the former and was sent to Calcutta under charge of Cotton. General Elphinstone took the place of Cotton in Kabul. General Nott was maintaining peace round Kandahar.

Burnes slain.

Meanwhile, *General Sale* who was hitherto at Jalalabad, was now returning to India, but was attacked on his way. At Kabul, *Burnes* who had been appointed envoy to succeed Macnaghten (who was to return to India) was slain and the treasury was plundered. General Sale was sent for; but he refused to return and retired to Jalalabad. The English cantonment in Kabul was closely surrounded by the Afghans.

Treaty with Akbar
Khan.

In the meantime, Akbar Khan, the son of Dost Mahomed, began to open communications with some hill tribes who blocked the road to India. General Elphinstone and Macnaghten came to terms with Akbar Khan, and promised to remove their troops from Afghanistan and to send back Dost Mahomed from Calcutta. Shah Shuja was to have the choice of staying with, or leaving the English. The Afghans were to supply means of withdrawal of the English troops. In spite of these terms, Akbar Khan assassinated Macnaghten, and the English were asked to withdraw their troops in peace, surrendering their guns, treasures, etc. When they were marching, they were attacked by the Afghans on their way. The Afghans sent incessant fire from the hills. It can be easily imagined how easy it is for an army to fight from the top of a hill. Even if they have no weapons, they can at least roll stones upon the enemy. The English suffered a terrible

Macnaghten slain.

The Kabul disaster.

General Sale at
Jalalabad. loss. All were cut to pieces except Doctor
Brydon who escaped to Jalalabad where
General Sale was holding out bravely,
though closely besieged. General Nott held Kandahar and
drew off the enemies.

At this stage of the war, Lord Ellenborough succeeded Lord
Auckland as Governor-General. The tale
of the terrible destruction of the British
troops frightened the English. Therefore,
Ellenborough wished to secure the safety of the English
garrisons, to restore British influence in Afghanistan, and
then to withdraw from Afghanistan; but
Shah Shuja was now unpopular in Afghan-
istan and was murdered at Kabul.

Ranjit Singh had died in 1839. His successors did not
object to the passage of the British army through the Panjab.
General Pollock soon reached Peshawar. *General Croft* and
Henry Lawrence got the help of the Sikhs in clearing the Khyber
Pass. Pollock reached Jalalabad where General Sale at last
came out and defeated the besiegers.

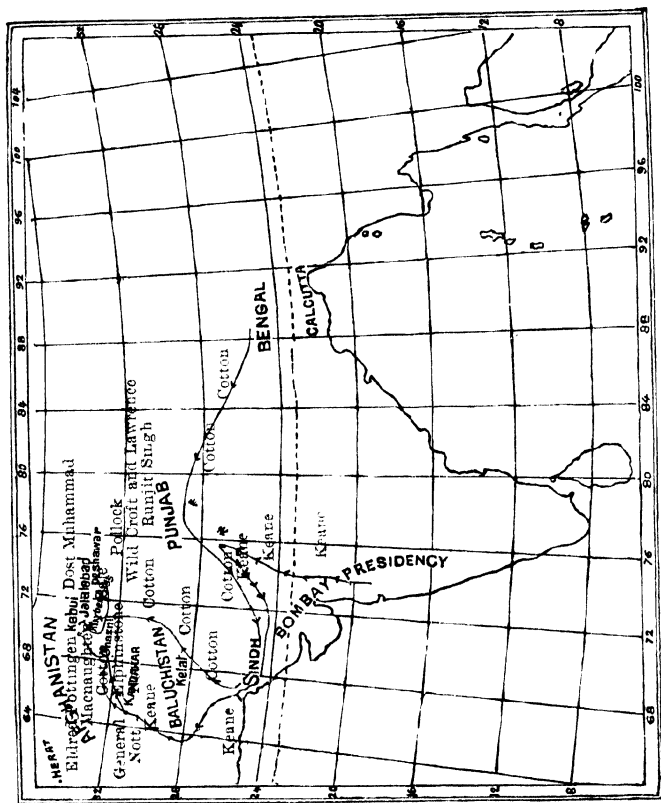
General Nott, having defeated the Afghans near Kandahar,
marched forward and took Ghazni. He defeated the Afghans
near *Kabul*.

General Pollock defeated Akbar Khan and marched on
Kabul. General Nott also joined him there. The English
destroyed the Great Bazaar of Kabul as a punishment for
Macnaghten's death. The English armies withdrew, having
destroyed the fort of Ali-Musjid. The town of Jalalabad was
handed over to the Sikhs. There are two prob-
able reasons for this restoration. The first
is, the Sikhs having assisted the English,
must receive some compensation. The

Jalalabad given to
the Sikhs.

Probable reasons.

Map showing the operations in the First Afghan War.



* Runjit Singh refused to allow the English troops to pass through the Punjab.

second is, Jalalabad being a frontier town very near the outskirts of the Panjab, the Sikhs would take care of its safety.

By the end of 1842, all the British forces were withdrawn from Afghanistan, and Dost Mahomed was allowed to return to Kabul and was restored to power. After all, Afghanistan was not brought within the sphere of British influence.

Ellenborough struck a medal with the motto signifying the restoration of peace to Asia.

CHAPTER XVII.

LORD ELLENBOROUGH (1842—1844).

Lord Ellenborough succeeded Lord Auckland, and arrived in India in February, 1842. Three great events mark his administration. The first is the *Afghan war* which had already been described. The next is the *Annexation of Sindh*, and the third is the settlement of affairs in *Gwalior*.

Annexation of Sindh, 1843.	We noticed already that Ranjit Singh died in 1839, and that Sher Singh, his son and successor, allowed the British troops
Cause.	under Pollock to pass through the Panjab. It was discovered that, after the disaster at Kabul, the Amirs of Sindh were secretly intriguing with Sher Singh against the English. On the 15th. of February,
1843, the Amirs attacked Major Outram, the Political Agent of	Sindh, who then fled to Sir Charles Napier, the Bombay Commander-in-Chief.
Events.	

17th. February, 1843, Battle of Miani.	In the battle of <i>Miani</i> , the British troops (out of 3,000 only 900 were English) under Sir Charles Napier defeated 30,000 troops of the Amirs of Sindh; he once more defeated the Amirs at <i>Haiderabad</i> in Sindh. Napier was made Governor of Sindh. After
21st. March, Battle of Haiderabad.	

deposing the Amirs, he restored order and *annexed* Sindh in 1843. He telegraphed to the Governor-General after the conquest, the word "*Peccavi*" (I have sinned [Sindh]). Regarding this annexation, Napier himself wrote, "We have no right to seize Sindh, yet we shall do so, and a very advantageous, useful and *humane piece of rascality* it will be." This annexation was afterwards condemned by the Court of Directors.

The possession of Sindh enabled the British (a maritime power) to settle themselves safely on the land on the West Coast *with a base on the sea*. It gave control over commerce.

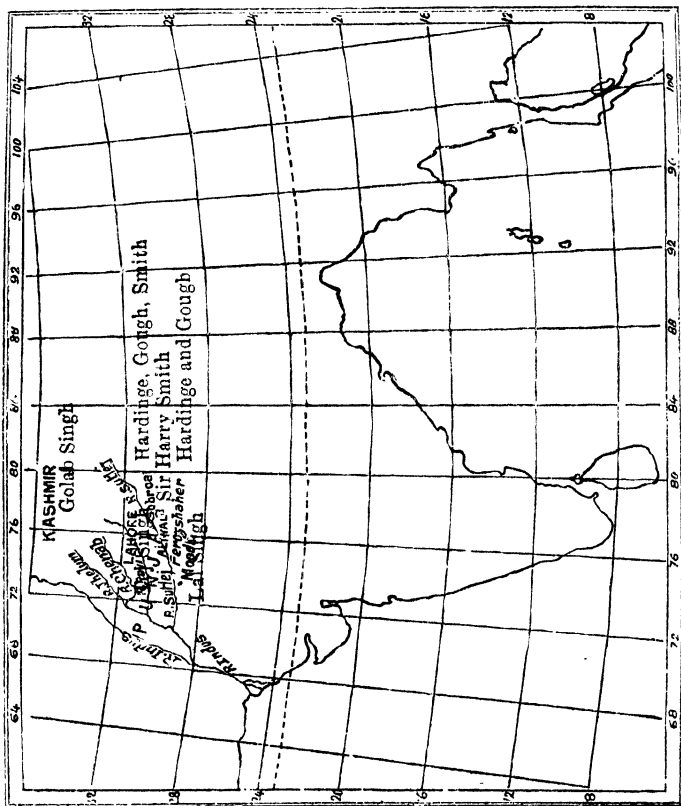
Settlement of affairs in Gwalior.	The next great event of this administration was the settlement of affairs in <i>Gwalior</i> . Daulat Rao Sindia died in 1827, leaving
Janakji Rao, an adopted infant son, to succeed him. Janakji died in 1843. His widow was Tara Bai, a girl of 12 years, who adopted a boy. She dismissed a regent appointed by Lord Ellenborough. When there was disorder in Gwalior, Ellenborough declared war, seeing that a union of the Sikhs	
1844, Battles of Maharajpur and Punniar.	with the Gwalior forces was possible. <i>Lord Hugh Gough</i> defeated the Gwalior forces at <i>Maharajpur</i> ; <i>General Grey</i> defeated the Gwalior troops at <i>Punniar</i> . The war was con-
Peace.	cluded by a peace, the terms of which were:—

- (1) Eighty guns were to be surrendered to the British.
- (2) The Gwalior army was reduced from 30,000 to 9,000.
- (3) A contingent under British officers, in addition to the Native army, was to be maintained in Gwalior.
- (4) The Council of Regency was to be guided by the British Resident.

June, 1844.

In June, 1844, Ellenborough was recalled.

Map showing the operations in the first Sikh War.



CHAPTER XVIII.

SIR HENRY HARDINGE (1844—1848).

The administration of Sir Henry Hardinge is best remembered in connection with the *salutary reforms* he introduced and the *First Sikh War*.

Ranjit Singh had died in 1839, and his son, Sher Singh, was assassinated in 1843.

First Sikh War,
(1844—1847). Dhulip Singh, the infant son of Ranjit Singh, was made the ruler of the Panjab. While Ranjit Singh was alive, he gave French training to his troops and made the Sikh army very strong and powerful. After his death, no one could control the turbulent army which was at this time under the management of a Council of State known as the *Khalsa*. The Khalsa now fell under the control of committees or *Punchayets*, as they were called. So long as the army received double pay, there was not much difficulty. Still, the army was trying to get more and more and grew very formidable and unruly.

Cause. The Rani, her brother, and her lover Lal Singh tried to win over the army. Tej Singh was appointed commander of the army. In order to save Lahore and the Panjab, and perhaps also to cause the destruction of the Sikh army, the Sikh soldiers were launched on British territories. The British were naturally sorry for this encroachment and declared war.

Tej Singh and Lal Singh were probably opposed to the war, but were afraid of being killed by their own troops. They, therefore, thought that such dangerous troops deserved destruction in the hands of the British who were decidedly more powerful at this time.

Events. In 1845, the Sikh army with its splendid artillery crossed the Sutlej and invaded British territory. It will be remembered that, in the treaty

with Ranjit Singh in 1809, the Sutlej was fixed as the boundary that separated British territory from Sikh territory.

Meanwhile, the English Army was also considerably increased on the frontier. *Hardinge* and *Sir Hugh Gough* defeated the Sikhs under *Lal Singh* at *Mudki*; but the Sikhs had fought in a very remarkable manner. Their courage was very astonishing; but as *Lal Singh* wished that the Sikh army should be destroyed, he fled at the beginning of the battle, and thereby brought about the defeat of the army.

18th. December, 1845. Battle of *Mudki*. *Gough* and *Hardinge* defeated and put to flight the Sikh army at *Ferozshahr*. *Sir Harry Smith* defeated the Sikhs at *Aliwal* and joined the main army at *Sobraon*. The main army of the Sikhs occupied a strongly fortified position at *Sobraon*. The British troops under *Hardinge* and *Gough* stormed the fortifications and utterly routed the Sikhs who, though they fought boldly, lost in this battle not less than 8,000 men and 167 guns. *Tej Singh* who also wished that the Sikh army should be destroyed, fled to the *Sutlej*. The English loss was over 2,000 in killed and wounded.

22nd. December, 1845. Battle of *Ferozshahr* and battle of *Aliwal*, 28th. January, 1846.

10th. February, 1846. Battle of *Sobraon*.

The British army now pressed on beyond the *Sutlej* to *Lahore*, and a peace was concluded.

The peace was made at *Lahore*. The terms were:—

8th. March, 1846. *Treaty of Lahore*.

(1) The Sikhs were to surrender the strip of territory between the *Beas* and the *Sutlej*, and *Lahore* was to be occupied by an English garrison for not more than one year.

(2) The Sikhs should pay the expenses of the war; but the Sikhs were unable to pay such a large sum of money. *Gulab Singh*, Viceroy of *Kashmir*, offered to pay the money, if he

was recognized as the independent Raja of Kashmir. The offer was accepted, and Kashmir has since been a separate kingdom.

(3) The Sikh Army was to be reduced to 25,000 infantry and 12,000 cavalry. It originally consisted of 88,662 men.

(4) The 256 guns that had been used against the English, were to be surrendered.

(5) The *Kohinur* was to be given to the Queen of England.

The Kohinur. This precious stone shone for many years on the summit of Akbar's tomb. It was worn by Shah Jahan and Aurangazeb. It was afterwards carried away from Delhi by Nadir Shah to Persia. Then, it became the property of Ahmad Shah Durani from whom it descended to Shah Shuja. By threats, entreaties and promises, Ranjit Singh induced the exiled Shah Shuja to deliver to him the celebrated jewel in return for *six* Sikh warriors by whose help he could conquer Kandahar. It, finally, in 1849, was surrendered to the Queen of England. It now adorns the crown of His Majesty Edward VII., the first Emperor of India.

Results of the War. Hardinge was opposed to the annexation of the Panjab. The English garrison withdrew from Lahore on condition that a British Resident was to be appointed. A council of Regency was established owing to the minority of Prince Dhulip Singh. December, 1846. Sir Henry Lawrence was the first Resident in the Panjab. Sir Henry Lawrence was the *first* Resident. Gough and Hardinge were made Peers.

Reforms of Hardinge. Hardinge introduced salutary reforms. Chief of them were:—

1844. (1) It was laid down that preference should be given in Government service to those who were English-educated.

- (2) The East India Railway was commenced by him.
 1845. (3) Sunday labour was abolished.
 1847. (4) He pressed on the Ganges Canal.
- (5) He encouraged tea-cultivation in Assam.
- (6) He also encouraged the preservation of the Taj Mahal at Agra and other old monuments.
- (7) He abolished the transit duties between Native States and Central India, and on the Sutlej and the Indus.
- (8) He reduced the military expenditure without reducing the strength of the army.
- (9) He made the grand Trunk Road from Calcutta to Delhi.
- (10) A Municipal Council was given to Calcutta.
- (11) He introduced the Telegraph system and Postal reform.
- (12) The Engineering College was established at Rurki.
- Hardinge returned to England, 1848. In 1848, Lord Hardinge returned to England.

CHAPTER XIX.

LORD DALHOUSIE (1848—1856).

Lord Dalhousie landed at Calcutta in 1848. He made the British the *only* power in India, while Clive made them a *power*, and Wellesley the *supreme* power in India. His administration is famous for the conquests and annexations he made and the reforms he introduced in India.

I. FOREIGN CONQUEST.

(1) *Panjab.*

In December 1846, according to the Treaty of Lahore, a British Resident was stationed in the Panjab, and Sir Henry Lawrence was the first Resident. The warlike Sikhs very naturally resented the

presence of a foreign Resident within their territory. They wished to be independent once more. They were only waiting for an opportunity to rise once more against the British.

*Cause of the Second
Sikh War.*

In 1848, Mulraj, the Governor of Multan, was called on by the Resident to submit his accounts. He, thereupon, offered to resign. In order to take over charge from him and to instal the new Governor, *Khan Singh*, who was a Sikh, *Vans Agnew* and *Anderson* were sent by the British Government. Mulraj, accordingly, handed over the fort to them ; but when they withdrew, they were attacked and killed by the mob, *Vans Agnew* exclaiming, " We are not the last of the English."

Plan.

Sir Hugh Gough was asked to go from Ferozpur to suppress the outbreak ; but he refused to stir owing to hot weather.

Events.

1848, Battles of
Kinneri and
Saddosam.

Herbert Edwardes advanced with 400 men and 2 guns, and defeated Mulraj at *Kinneri* and *Saddosam*, and besieged him in Multan.

As a punishment for a plot in Lahore which was discovered, the English sent the Rani far away to Benares. A Sikh subsidiary force under *Sher Singh* first joined *Edwardes* against Mulraj, but soon deserted him and went to the side of Mulraj. *Edwardes* was consequently compelled to raise the siege of Multan and retire.

The Afghans under *Dost Mahomed* thought that this was the best opportunity for them to attack the English. They, therefore, joined the Sikhs, and there was a general rising against the English throughout the Panjab.

In November, 1848, *Gough* at last advanced. Troops were also sent from Sindh under *General Whish* to begin once more the siege of Multan.

3rd. January, 1849. Multan was taken and Mulraj surrendered.

Meanwhile, Gough was attacked by a Sikh army under Sher Singh who held a strong position at *Chillianwalla* with troops almost double those of the British. *Gough* 13th. January, 1849. *Battle of Chillianwalla.* failed to dislodge the Sikhs. The English had the best of the battle, but the result was practically a Sikh victory. The English loss was very great (2,400 men in all).

Napier who had annexed Sindh in 1843, was now appointed to supersede Gough; but before his arrival, *Gough* and *Whish* jointly attacked the Sikhs at *Gujarat* on 22nd. Feb 1849. *Battle of Gujarat.* the Chenab at 7-30 A.M., and utterly defeated them and took their camp and guns. All the Sikh soldiers were practically captured, and the Afghans were chased back through the Khyber Pass.

Lord Dalhousie *annexed the Panjab*, and Panjab annexed. a large pension was given to Dhulip Singh who, since then, lived in England till 1893, when he died an exile.

Thus, the British, with their own hands, broke down the useful barrier state against inroads from Central Asia; but from another point of view, Dalhousie's annexation of the Panjab was quite fortunate and opportune, because if the Sikhs were independent in 1857, (i.e., eight years later) they would have had a fair opportunity to shake off the power of the British by taking part in the Great Indian Mutiny.

By the annexation of the Panjab, the British frontier was carried across the Indus right up to the base of the hills in Afghanistan. The suppression of the Sikhs put an end to the long rivalry of the native Indian powers. Henceforward, all the campaigns of the British were to be outside and around India, because the consolidation of British India was completed.

Consolidation of the Panjab. After annexing the Panjab, Lord Dalhousie framed rules for its peaceful administration.

(1) He entrusted the rule to a Board of three members, Henry Lawrence, John Lawrence and Mansel, under the superintendence of the Governor-General.

(2) The Sikh army was disbanded, but the best soldiers were enlisted in the British Army.

(3) Population was disarmed, i.e., no person in the Panjab could use any kind of weapon without license from the British Government.

(4) A frontier force and an army of 50,000 were maintained.

(5) The Jaghirs were deprived of their fiefs.

(6) Cantonments and roads were established.

(7) The judicial department was reorganized under Mansel ; and the revenue department under John Lawrence.

(8) An honest system of collection was introduced.

(9) Land revenue in the Panjab was settled on easy terms, being fixed at an average of one-fourth of the produce.

(10) Irrigation was developed.

(11) Education of the people was also attended to.

(2) *Sikkim.* A small part of Sikkim was annexed as a punishment to the Raja of Sikkim by whose men Campbeil and Hooker, while travelling in that country with the raja's permission, were seized.
1849.

(3) *Burmah.* According to the treaty of Yendabu, it will be remembered that a British Resident was to be stationed in Burmah. The Burmese Emperor drove the British Resident from Ava, and ill-treated British merchants and others at Rangoon. The latter appealed to the Governor-General for redress. *Commodore Lambert* was sent to Rangoon to demand
Cause of the Second Burmese War, (1851—1852).

Events.
1852.

Reorganization of
Lower Burmah.

redress, but was treated with insult. Dalhousie sent an expedition which captured Martaban, Rangoon, Bassein and Prome. Dalhousie annexed Lower Burmah, and reorganized it successfully by appointing

a *Chief Commissioner* over British Burmah.

Usefulness of Lower
Burmah to the
British.

The possession of Lower Burmah along the eastern shores of the Bay of Bengal, just at the outflow of the Irawadi, enabled the maritime nation (the British) to settle

themselves safely on land *with a base on the sea*. It gave control over commerce and provided an easy water-way inland. In addition to this, the Burmese were industrious and unwarlike. The possession of Bengal gave exactly similar advantages to the British. A settlement was made on the Hugli

Compare Bengal
and Sindh.

and it gave control over commerce and provided an easy water-way inland. The people of Bengal were industrious and un-

warlike. Thus, a settlement at Calcutta upon the Ganges estuary led to the conquest of Bengal, just in the same way as the planting of a new British capital at Rangoon, near the mouth of the Irawadi, was the first step toward a march up the river to Mandalay. Similarly, the occupation of Karrachee, by the side of the Indus, was followed by the taking of Sindh.

II. ANNEXATION
OF SUBORDINATE
HINDU STATES.

(1) *Satara*,
1848.

Doctrine of Lapse.

In 1819, the British set up the Maharaja of Satara. He was deposed in 1839, and was succeeded by his brother, the last representative of the House of Sivaji. In 1848, he asked leave to adopt an heir on the failure of a natural heir. The custom of adoption had been recognised in India from ancient times, and the adopted son succeeded to the estate or to the throne of his father.

In the case of Indian States, Lord Dalhousie would not recognize this system. This non-recognition of the system of adoption was called the "Doctrine of Lapse." Therefore, this new doctrine was opposed to the Doctrine of Adoption. In the case of Satara, the Raja adopted a son on his death-bed. This adoption was set aside by Dalhousie; and Satara was annexed to the Bombay Presidency by the Doctrine of Lapse.

(2) *Sambalpur* (in
South-West Bengal)
1848.

Doctrine of Lapse.

The chief of Sambalpur purposely omitted to adopt an heir, so that after his death, his subjects might obtain the benefits of British administration. This annexation was also based on the Doctrine of Lapse.

(3) *Nagpur*.
1853.
Doctrine of Lapse.

The last Bhonsle Raja of Nagpur died in 1853. Mansel, the Resident, had urged him to adopt an heir, but he refused to adopt. On his death, Nagpur was annexed in accordance with the Doctrine of Lapse.

(4) *Jhansi*.
1853, Doctrine of
Lapse.

In the case of Jhansi, Dalhousie refused to recognize adoption and annexed the province in accordance with the Doctrine of Lapse. The Rani of Jhansi was, therefore, displeased.

(5) *Karnatic*.
1855, Doctrine of
Lapse.

The Nawab of the Karnatic was leading a licentious life. He died in 1855, leaving behind him no children. The family was pensioned off. It was already laid down in 1801, that the Nawabship was not hereditary. Therefore, the province was annexed in accordance with the Doctrine of Lapse.

The Peishwa.

In 1851, the Peishwa Baji Rao II died childless. He adopted a son, Nana Saheb. The pension granted to the Peishwa was discontinued to his adopted son. Therefore, Nana Saheb took part in the Great Indian Mutiny of 1857 against the British.

III. LARGER PROTECTED STATES.

(1) *Nizam's
Dominions.*
1853.

Barar given to the
English.

It will be remembered that the Nizam had agreed to pay for the maintenance of a British contingent in his territory. The arrears had accumulated to a large sum. Lord Dalhousie demanded that a sufficient territory should be ceded for the maintenance of the force. Barar (Ceded Districts) which had been taken from the Raja of Nagpur and given to the Nizam by Wellesley in 1803, was given to the British Government for the maintenance of the contingent force.

(2) *Oudh.*
13th February,
1856.

The last annexation of Lord Dalhousie was *Oudh*. The Nawab of Oudh was governing the country very badly. Colonel Sleeman was reporting several times that, but for the protection given by the British to the Nawab, the landholders would destroy his government. The Directors were strongly for annexation, but Dalhousie wished to maintain the Nawab, while taking over the administration. By the order of the Court of Directors, Dalhousie annexed Oudh, having dispossessed the Nawab for misgovernment.

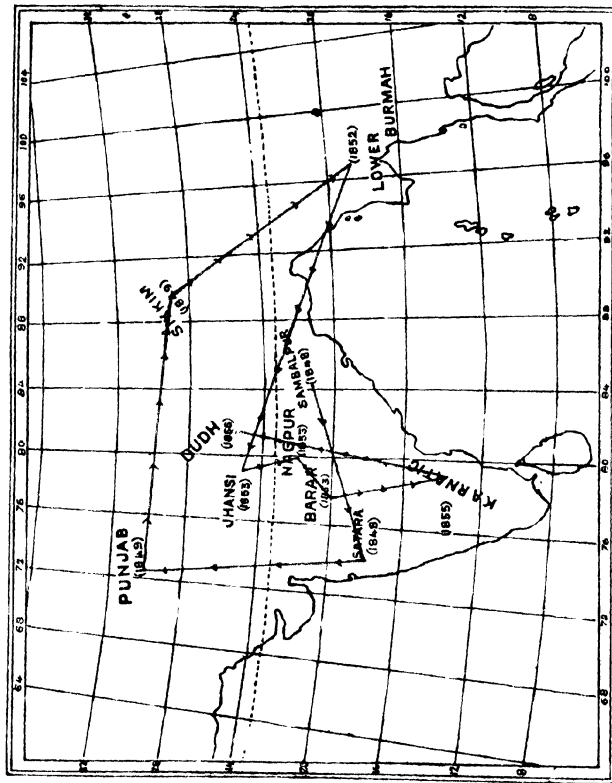
IV. INTERNAL ADMINISTRATION.

Lord Dalhousie changed the centre of government from Calcutta to *Simla*. In 1853, a Lieutenant-Governor was appointed over Bengal, and the Governor-General was thus set free from the Government of Bengal. The first Railway in India was opened in 1853. Dalhousie drew into India a large amount of British capital for investment on Railways. He developed the Telegraph system. Half-anna postage was introduced in 1854. The three Indian Universities were founded, and a Presidency College was established at Calcutta.

1856. Dalhousie
returned to
England.

Lord Dalhousie returned to England in 1856. He was the last Governor-General that ruled in the time of the East India Company.

Map showing the territorial acquisitions during the time of Dalhousie's administration. The red line runs from Sambalpur and if it is carefully followed in the direction of the arrow it leads to all the territories annexed in Chronological order.



A retrospective
view.

The first step to British Empire in India was taken simply with a view to defend their factories. For example, the Madras Presidency grew out of an effort, which, in the first instance, was quite necessary, to protect Fort St. George and Fort St. David from the French. The Bengal Presidency grew in a similar manner, out of the necessity of protecting Fort William and punishing the Nawab of Bengal (Sirrajuddaulah) for the Black-Hole Tragedy.

It must be noticed, however, that since 1784 (Pitt's Bill) all the factories were settled not by the Company, but by the President of the Board of Control and by the Governor-General. It was under this system that the conquest of India was for the most part made. It was Lord Dalhousie, who, for the first time, laid down the principle of *intervention* and *annexation*. This principle was subsequently adopted by Lord Hastings, who, before his Governor-Generalship, was opposed to it. Lord Dalhousie followed the same principle and applied the same, like Wellesley, in several cases, in a most high-handed manner. Dalhousie was of the type of Frederick the Great of Prussia, and did deeds which were almost as difficult to justify as the capture of Silesia, etc. (See War of the Austrian Succession in English History).

Dalhousie compared
to Frederick the
Great.

It may be thought that an increase of territory was always simultaneously followed by a correspondingly increased trade ; but the facts proved otherwise. There was no correspondence whatever *in time* between the territorial advances and commercial growth. For example, in 1811, the Company's trade was very insignificant, and yet, this was the period of vast annexations of Wellesley. On the other hand, trade took a great leap in 1830, during a period of entire peace.

Renewal of the
Charter, 1853.

The Company's Charter was renewed for the last time in 1853.

(1) The number of the Court of Directors was reduced from 30 to 18, of whom 6 were to be appointed by the sovereign.

(2) Appointments in Civil Service were to be filled up by allowing competition.

(3) The Governor-General was relieved of the administration of Bengal, and a Lieutenant-Governor took charge of the administration.

(4) Representatives of the several Presidencies were added to the Governor-General's Council.

(5) Sadar Courts were amalgamated with the High Courts in the Presidency towns.

CHAPTER XX.

EARL CANNING (1856—1861).

Earl Canning's prophecy before leaving Canning's prophecy. for India was, "I wish for a peaceful term of office, but I cannot forget that in the sky of India, serene as it is, a small cloud may arise no larger than a man's hand, but which growing larger and larger may at last threaten to burst and overwhelm us with ruin." This prophecy found its fulfilment in the outbreak of the Great Indian Mutiny of 1857.

Earl Canning made a treaty with Dost Mahomed, by which both parties agreed to be friendly forgetting the old unpleasant relations. He also made a treaty with the Shah of Persia, by which the latter gave up his claims to Herat.

The greatest event of this administration was the *mutiny* of 1857.

The causes of the mutiny were:—

Causes of the Great Indian Mutiny of 1857.

(1) The *Nawab of Oudh* who was dispossessed in 1856, *Nana Sahib* who was refused the usual pension granted to his

He reduced the expenditure by 5 millions and increased taxation under the heads of *Income Tax* and *Salt Duty*. He encouraged Primary education especially in Bengal. Special arrangements were made for the education of the Muhammadans. Two new departments of Government were formed. (1) The Statistical Survey, by this the *first Census* was carried out in 1871. (2) The department of Agriculture.

His attention was drawn to the condition of prisons. He paid a visit to Rangoon and Moulmein, and thence went to the Andaman Islands to inspect the Penal Settlement at Port Blair. Here, he was assassinated by a Musalman convict in 1872.

Lord Northbrook
(1872—1876)
Behar famine
averted.

Lord Northbrook was the *fifth* Viceroy of India. In 1874, a severe famine visited Behar, but by his able management it was successfully averted.

Frontier, 1873.

An agreement was come to by which the boundaries of the Russian and British spheres of influence were settled. Afghanistan was to be entirely outside the Russian sphere, but within the British. Russian agents were not to enter Afghanistan, though the British might.

Gaekwar of Baroda
deposed.

In 1875, the Gaekwar of Baroda was charged with an attempt to poison the British Resident and was deposed; and a child belonging to the family was raised to the throne. Sir T. Madhava Rao was brought in as minister, and Sir Richard Mead from Hyderabad was made Resident.

1875.

The Prince of Wales visited India.

1876.

Lord Northbrook sailed for England.

CHAPTER XXII.

LORD LYTTON (1876—1880).

The Queen pro-
claimed Empress of
India, 1st January,
1877.

On the 1st January, 1877, a grand Durbar was held at Delhi by Lord Lytton, the *sixth* Viceroy of India. The Queen was proclaimed Empress of India. (Cf. Lord Curzon's Durbar).

Famine in the
Madras Presidency,
1877.

In the same year a severe famine visited the Madras Presidency and the Native State of Mysore. Nearly $5\frac{1}{4}$ millions of people died. Lytton made arrangements for the relief. Famine Insurance Tax

1878.

began. Famine Commission was appointed.

*The Second Afghan
War (1877-1880).*

Cause.

Sher Ali refused to receive a British envoy, while receiving a Russian Mission. Lord Lytton, thereupon, declared war and sent three armies by the Khyber Pass, Bolan Pass and Kurum Pass. Sher Ali fled and died soon after. His son, Yakub Khan, was recognized as the Amir. It was arranged that a British Resident should reside in Kabul.

Within a few months, however, the Resident, Sir *Louis Cavagnari*, and his escort were massacred. A British army was sent again, and Yakub Khan abdicated, and Kabul and Kandahar were occupied by the British force.

1878.

In Lord Lytton's time, the Vernacular Press Act was passed imposing restrictions on Native newspapers. He encouraged Free Trade.

CHAPTER XXIII.

MARQUIS OF RIPON AND EARL DUFFERIN.

Ripon (1880—1884). Marquis of Ripon was the *seventh* Viceroy and Governor-General of India. In Afghanistan, Ayub Khan, the brother of Yakub Khan, was still in arms, and he defeated a British brigade at *Maiwand*; but *Sir Frederick Roberts* marched from Kabul to Kandahar and defeated Ayub's army, in September, 1880.

Abdul Rahiman, a nephew of Sher Ali, was recognised as Amir. The British forces were withdrawn from Kabul and Kandahar.

Reforms. Lord Ripon's name is dear to the Indian people for the reforms he introduced.

(1) The Vernacular Press Act passed by Lytton was repealed.

(2) The Local Self-Government Act was passed, by which the administration of their local affairs was entrusted to the people themselves. (Municipalities and District Boards).

(3) He encouraged primary education.

1882. (4) He abolished import duties on cotton goods, etc.

(5) The Bengal Tenancy Bill was passed by which the cultivators received further protection. (Compare Lawrence's Act).

Earl Dufferin (1884—1888). Earl Dufferin held a grand Durbar at *Rawalpindi*, where he received the Amir of Afghanistan (*Abdul Rahi-man*), and thus strengthened the friendly relations with the Amir. War with Russia was threatened, but by Dufferin's ability it was averted.

Afghanistan

Burmah.
The Third Burmese
War.

(1885-1888).

Clause
 Nov. 28,
 1885.

was occupied by *General Prendergast*. The king was removed to India.

Upper Burmah
 annexed.
 1st Jan. 1886.

1886.

1885.

King Thebaw, the last king of independent Burmah, entered into secret negotiations with France and defied the Indian Government. Hence, war was declared. The king was easily defeated and Mandalay was occupied by *General Prendergast*. The king was removed to India.

Upper Burmah was declared to be annexed.

The Indian National Congress was founded.

Dufferin held a Durbar at Rawalpindi and provided the Amir of Afghanistan that the Indian Government would defend his kingdom against foreign enemies, and gave large sums of money and arms. The same evening, news reached the Viceroy that the Afghan and Russian out-posts had come to blows over the question of boundary. This is the so-called "Panjdeh Incident."

Gwalior.
 1885-1893.

In 1886, Gwalior was restored to Sindia. Lord Roberts was the Commander-in-Chief of India.

1887.

Queen's Jubilee was celebrated throughout India with one outburst of sincere loyalty.

CHAPTER XXIV.

LORD LANSDOWNE, LORD ELGIN AND LORD CURZON.

Lord Lansdowne.
 (1888-1894.)

Lord Lansdowne was the next Viceroy and Governor-General of India. In 1889, Prince Albert Victor visited India.

